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Internal Instructional Supervision in Public Secondary Schools in Kenya

by

Zachariah Ogolla Wanzare ©

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of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the current state of internal instructional supervision practices and procedures and staff development in public secondary schools in Kenya from the perceptions of teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers. Specific research questions focused on respondents' perceptions of and preferences for the foci and practices of internal instructional supervision, supervisory personnel, staff development programs relevant to instructional supervision, and desired changes for improvement supervision practices and staff development.

A descriptive survey design was utilized for this study. Data for the study were collected through questionnaires, interviews, and documents. The questionnaires were distributed to 200 teachers and 200 headteachers, and in-depth interviews were conducted with 21 participants. Government documents relevant to internal instructional supervision and staff development were gathered for analysis. Of the 200 teachers surveyed, 136 returned the surveys, a 68% return rate for teachers. Of the 200 headteachers surveyed, 56 headteachers returned the surveys, a 28% return rate for headteachers.

The findings reveal supervision practices marred by questionable practices associated with witch-hunting, victimization, intimidation, inconsistency, confusion, and dishonesty. The supervisors lacked the necessary supervisory skills, were not serious about their supervisory roles, and, consequently, they were not taken seriously by teachers.

Among the proposed changes for improvement of supervision practices and staff development, based on the findings of the study, were (a) encouraging supervisors to be objective and teacher-friendly; (b) encouraging headteachers to take the leading role in

internal instructional supervision and staff development by developing interest in supervision and staff development, allowing themselves to be supervised by other members of the teaching staff, and getting involved in classroom teaching to become acquainted with ongoing classroom events; (c) providing appropriate rewards and incentives to teachers who receive good supervisory reports or take initiatives to facilitate their professional learning; and (d) fostering collaboration and teamwork among teachers and instructional supervisors.

The findings of this study indicate that instructional supervision and staff development are characterized by conflicting role expectations that cause stress and mistrust for teachers and instructional supervisors and that the development of clearly written policies on instructional supervision and staff development is an area needing the greatest attention.

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CHAPTER 1

INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KENYA

The Kenyan formal system of education, commonly known as the 8-4-4, consists of three levels: (a) eight years of primary education, (b) four years of secondary education, and (c) four years of university education. Secondary education, in particular, is an important aspect of the education system because it helps to alleviate the manpower constraints of the nation (Bogonko, 1992). According to the Ministry of Education (1994), the objectives of secondary education are (a) to provide for all-round mental, moral, and spiritual development; (b) to provide relevant skills to enable a positive contribution to the development of society; (c) to ensure balanced development in cognitive (knowledge), psychomotor (manipulative), and practical and effective (attitude and value) skills; (d) to lay a firm foundation for further education, training, and work; and (e) to lead to the acquisition of positive attitudes and values for the well-being of society. Also, the Ministry of Education reported that, because the government is committed to making education relevant to economic and social development, secondary education has undergone many changes since independence: (a) the evolution of a more relevant curriculum based on the requirements of the nation and the individual, (b) increased growth in the number of secondary schools and enrollment, (c) the introduction of more job-oriented courses (e.g., industrial and business education), (d) the consolidation of schools for quality, and (e) the adoption of a new system of categorization of schools into public and private.

A further transformation in secondary education recently receiving a great deal of support and attention in Kenya is the use of instructional supervision as a vehicle for the improvement of instruction in schools. *Supervision* includes those activities concerned with the establishment, maintenance, and upgrading of teaching and learning. Instructional supervision embraces all activities directed specifically toward the establishment, maintenance, and improvement of the teaching-learning process in schools. Furthermore, it includes improving teaching and learning strategies and providing an atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning. The need for instructional supervision in schools has been voiced by several writers. For example, Schain (1988) observed that

> while colleges can do basic training in the arts and skills of teaching, the actual training of teachers must take place in schools where they teach. That's the real world and that's where teachers will spend most of their working lives. Accordingly, the question becomes, "Who will train our teachers in their schools?" The answer is quite clear—the school supervisors. (p. 4)

Also, Pfeiffer and Dunlap (1982) noted that instructional supervision is needed to help teachers improve their instructional performance, motivate their professional growth, and implement their curricular development. They concluded that the ultimate goal of instructional supervision is to improve student development, which may be achieved through changing teacher behavior, modifying curriculum, or restructuring the learning environment. Oliva and Pawlas (2001) observed that supervision is needed for all kinds of teachers in schools—the new, the inexperienced, and the able. Current literature on instructional supervision (e.g., Hilo, 1987; Kelly, 1988; McElwain, 1989; Patterson, 1990; Rabideau, 1993; Wacowich, 1983; Waite, 1995; Zeng, 1993) suggests supervision is needed, is desirable, and plays a valuable role in education. In Kenya, improving the quality of teaching and learning is of critical importance because of (a) the general low teacher quality (Wanzare, 2002); (b) the presence of many untrained teachers in the teaching profession (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, 1993); and (c) the need to implement educational reforms, innovations, and development effectively and successfully (Republic of Kenya, 1988a).

Along with the need for supervision, there is a need for the study of instructional supervision by researchers in the field to determine the effectiveness of supervisory practices and the need for the changes to improve practices. Also, there is a need to know which practices, if any, in instructional supervision will meet the needs of teachers and headteachers in their schools. Toward this end, an assessment of the perceptions of teachers and headteachers regarding the existing and preferred practices of instructional supervision is desirable. These perceptions can be the basis for the evaluation of the effectiveness of supervisory practices and the need for change.

The Kenyan government, through various official documents, has emphasized the need to improve teaching and learning in secondary schools through instructional supervision. For example, *The Report of the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond* (Republic of Kenya, 1988a; referred to hereafter as the *Kamunge Report*) has emphasized that supervisory and advisory services for secondary schools be identified to increase the quality of teachers (Republic of Kenya, 1988b). Also, the National Committee on Educational Objectives and Policies has recommended that the performance of teachers should be assessed continually for the purpose of improving teaching and "for use in awarding fair promotions and imposing appropriate sanctions" (Republic of Kenya, 1976, p. 106). This view concurs with Oliva and Pawlas' (2001) belief that summative teacher evaluation serves administrative decision making with respect to hiring and firing, promotion and tenure, teaching assignments, and transfer of teachers

Background to the Problem

Supervision in Kenyan secondary schools, conducted mainly by inspection, is a function that has, over the years, been entrusted to the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (Appendix A) in accordance with the Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 1980), which empowers the Minister for Education to promote the education of the people of Kenya. The Act specifically states that

> The Minister shall promote the education of the people of Kenya and the progressive development of institutions devoted to the promotion of education, and shall secure the effective co-operation, under the general direction or control, of all public bodies concerned with education in carrying out the national policy for education. (p. 5)

To achieve this objective, the Inspectorate section of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology has endeavored to arrange some visitations to schools by inspectors to carry out general supervision or inspection. The following activities are typically conducted during external supervision: (a) checking on educational facilities; (b) monitoring, reviewing, and assessing how well educational standards are being maintained and educational standards implemented by teachers and school administrators; and (c) observing classroom teaching by individual teachers to assess their professional competence for promotion on merit and for professional guidance (Chabala, 1994; Ministry of Education, 1994; Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, 1999). Additionally, arising from inspection, in-service training needs for teachers and headteachers are expected to be identified. According to Wanga (1988), the main purpose of such a legal provision for school inspection is to

> enable the Minister [for Education] as [a] representative of the government and the people to satisfy himself that educational standards are being maintained or improved, and that the schools and colleges are being conducted in accordance with national aims and policies. Seen from a legal standpoint, therefore, inspection is an instrument with which the political and administrative authorities maintain a necessary contact with schools, teachers, and the community. (p. 19)

However, the following constraints have been associated with external supervision by school inspectors (Chabala, 1994; Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, 1999):

1. inadequate inspectors. As noted in the *Kamunge Report* (Republic of Kenya, 1988b), the number of school inspectors is quite small and "hardly copes with the demand to inspect all the schools and various subjects taught in secondary schools and participate in curriculum development and examinations" (p. 33). Moreover, there exist "no clearly defined criteria for determining the number of secondary education inspectors to be recruited to ensure proper coverage of schools and subjects taught" (p. 33). Ramani (2003), in reporting the findings of the task force appointed by the Kenyan government to advise on the new free primary education policy, revealed that the Inspectorate department of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology currently has about 1,300 inspectors for a teaching force of over 200,000 spread over about 18,000 public secondary and primary schools.
2. limited resources, such as funds and equipment;
3. lack of transportation or flexible mobility;

4. incompetent inspection personnel who lack training, especially in instructional supervision;
5. undue delay in providing meaningful feedback to schools due to poor printing facilities at the Inspectorate; and
6. the poor relationship between school inspectors and teachers.

Other concerns regarding the inspection of schools have been voiced in the literature (e.g., Kamuyu, 2001; Olembo, Wanga, & Karagu, 1992; Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, 1999; Wanga, 1988): (a) lack of sufficient teacher support to inspection process; (b) inspectors' general negative attitudes toward inspection and a decided lack of commitment and positive approach to inspection; (c) lack of proper, appropriate, and uniform foci of inspection; and (d) the tendency of school inspectors to focus their inspection on school buildings and administrative systems rather than on teaching and learning, with minimal attention to the identification and improvement of educational standards.

Therefore, supervision by Inspectorate personnel, in the main, has not been productive. As Republic of Kenya (1999), in what will hereafter be referred to as the *Koech Report*, concluded, the provision of professional guidance on subject matter to teachers by the Inspectorate personnel has not been forthcoming, and, consequently, teachers have developed low morale.

In view of the above constraints, there has been an urgent need for alternative ways to improve the quality of teaching and learning in Kenyan schools. Various government statements have proposed internal or school-based supervision to supplement the work done by external supervisors. In Wanga's (1988) view, school-based supervision is done by the headteacher and staff of the institution in which supervision takes place. For example, the Ministry of Education (1987) recommended the use of school-based supervisors—such as headteachers, departmental heads, and subject heads—in instructional supervision of teaching. Commenting on staff appraisal, Waithaka (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 1988), noted that

> the Ministry [of Education] is aware of the existence of good quality personnel out here in the field such as . . . heads of schools. . . . Field officers with administrative responsibilities would be doing this Ministry a good turn if they worked to promote and sustain a vigorous staff-appraisal system because in this way some of that great talent would be tapped and utilized to the benefit of this nation. (pp. 28-29)

Later, in the *Kamunge Report*, Republic of Kenya (1988a) observed that the "most important supervision and guidance is that given by the head of the school" (p. 34) and recommended that heads of schools be utilized to inspect and guide other teachers to supplement the work done by external school inspectors and that the role of headteachers as "first inspectors" of their schools be strengthened. The government has accepted these recommendations (Republic of Kenya, 1988b).

A few Kenyan scholars also believed that headteachers are in a good position to assist their colleague teachers with instructional improvements in their schools. A notable example is Ochieng (1984), who reasoned that, "given the fact that many Kenyan schools have unqualified teachers, the headteacher should be able to assist particularly beginning teachers who have just received training and those who have no training at all" (p. 12). Ondengero (1985), who, studied administrative problems faced by secondary school heads in Kanduyi Division of Bungoma District, Kenya, also recommended that headteachers supervise incompetent and inefficient teachers. In an earlier study Maranga (1977) also recommended that more emphasis be placed on school-based supervision.

Therefore, the overall view of the Kenyan government and of Kenyans in general is that internal instructional supervision in secondary schools should be promoted, with headteachers taking the major role. According to Lodiaga (1995), moves toward school-based arrangements relative to supervision of teaching are more cost effective than maintaining a team of external school inspectors who cannot function effectively. Adding to this view, Raudenbush, Eamsukkawat, Di-Ibor, Kamali, and Taoklam (1993) noted that interventions into the lives of teachers at schools may pay off when they focus on problems of practice and are viewed as useful in the eyes of the practitioner and that school-based instructional supervision is a potentially direct and cost-efficient option for supporting effective instructional practice. Also, the involvement of school-based supervisors ensures that all schools will be inspected simultaneously, thus making it possible to make meaningful comparisons across schools (Wanzare, 2002).

School-based instructional supervision will be expected to address the following major challenges: (a) assisting teachers in the various categories—beginning, qualified, unqualified, underqualified—to better their teaching (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001); (b) helping school administrations in planning the participation of individual teachers in staff development, thus preparing them for different or increased responsibilities (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982; Sergiovanni, 1982); (c) assisting schools in selecting relevant instructional materials and equipment (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000); (d) helping schools to implement government educational curricula (Krey & Burke, 1989); (e) improving the relationship between teachers and headteachers

(Oliva & Pawlas, 2001); and (f) leading in curriculum development (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000).

Further, the involvement of headteachers as internal instructional supervisors has several operational advantages. First, headteachers are most likely to have more time for supervision because they deal with teachers in their own schools, instead of having to travel to different schools as external inspectors often do; as a result, they may be in a position to observe both the instructional activity of the teachers and the learning activities of the students (Sergiovanni, 2001) and to evaluate a number of aspects of instructional supervision, such as the process of supervision, the way the supervisory program is internally managed in the school, whether or not the intended objectives are being realized, and to what extent (Lipham, 1981; Lovell & Wiles, 1983). Second, according to Hunter (1984), the headteacher is

> continuously on site, unlike [external] supervisors. . . . Even though someone else may do in-service or work with teachers in classrooms, unless that person is consistently available when needed, a request for help as well as the validation of subsequent effective performance by the teacher must be met by the [headteacher]. (p. 188)

Third, in Hunter's view the headteacher controls the "reward" system of the school, an opportunity that may constitute a powerful strategy for improving internal instructional supervision. Fourth, as the headteacher employs a variety of instructional supervision techniques that meet the diverse needs of teachers, there is likely to be a greater chance of public satisfaction with the instructional process (Kelly, 1988). Instructional supervisors may acquire such techniques through their participation in in-service training programs. As Wiles and Bondi (2000) noted, to be effective, instructional leaders must have both the knowledge and skills necessary to change the behaviors of teachers, which they can acquire by attending seminars, conferences, and graduate classes.

Fifth, the involvement of headteachers in internal supervision and their use of appropriate instructional supervision practices will be educators' way of addressing Beach and Reinhartz's (2000) belief that supervisors are educators who are designated as resources for teachers on instructional ideas, issues, and concerns, and who facilitate change in such a way that teachers are successful in their endeavor to enhance the quality of teaching and learning in schools. The choice regarding the appropriate supervisory practice to employ, especially in developmental supervision, depends on (a) teachers' stages of personal and professional developments, (b) supervisors' competencies, and (c) supervisors' own decision-making abilities. In brief, it is the supervisor who is expected to decide which appropriate supervisory practice to use to facilitate instructional supervision.

And, sixth, Wanzare (2002) argued that, because headteachers are expected to be in school throughout the year, they are in a position to discharge many supervisory functions more effectively than are external school inspectors, who may be able to visit schools only occasionally, and that the possibility of schools putting up artificial shows to satisfy external inspectors becomes irrelevant when headteachers are entrusted with inspection functions in their schools.

Statement of the Problem

However, few investigations can be found that depict the realities of instructional supervision. In order to improve instructional supervision, it is necessary to know how it is practiced and perceived and what its current purposes and foci are. Furthermore, although the Kenyan government is keen in facilitating staff development programs for incumbent headteachers and teachers, there is a lacuna in the knowledge regarding the current barriers to the professional learning of these incumbents and how to address them. Persistent shortcomings are also evident in research regarding the Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology's policy guidelines relevant to school-based instructional supervision. It is quite evident, given the current state of knowledge in this area, that more research is needed.

An investigation into the current state of internal instructional supervision practices and procedures as perceived by secondary school headteachers (as internal instructional supervisors), secondary teachers, and senior education officers is the main focus of the proposed study. No other scientific study of this nature has been conducted in the field of instructional supervision in Kenya.

Although the Kenyan government has strongly recommended that headteachers take the leading role in internal instructional supervision with a view to improving the quality of teaching in Kenyan secondary schools, it must be emphasized that instructional supervision is a complex and confusing activity fraught with emotional and social overtones. However, supervision of instruction should focus on the teaching and learning that goes on and seek to help teachers and supervisors to provide high quality learning experiences for students. To accomplish this goal, teachers and supervisors must work together to generate understandings regarding the practices of instructional supervision.

Whereas the Kenyan Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology expects that the prescribed school curriculum will be implemented successfully, in the final analysis, teachers and headteachers, working collaboratively, are the ones who will determine the success or failure of this implementation.

There does not seem to be a written government policy regarding internal instructional supervision for secondary schools in Kenya. However, the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology has produced a document entitled *A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya* (Ministry of Education, 1987), which outlines, among other things, the duties of the various members of staff in the schools, such as headteacher, deputy head, departmental head, subject teacher, class teacher, housemaster, and teacher counselor, but does not specifically address instructional supervision practices and procedures. Secondary teachers and headteachers are expected by the Ministry of Education to use this document to guide their supervisory practices.

One major issue relating to the current internal instructional supervision in Kenyan secondary schools needs to be addressed: What are the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers regarding the existing and preferred practices of supervision? The degree to which headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers perceive the current state of internal instructional supervision in secondary schools as credible will illuminate the current state of the art. Research into the current and preferred practices by headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers could (a) identify ways of proper management of the relationship between headteachers, as internal instructional supervisors, and teachers; (b) identify areas of supervisory skills needed by headteachers as internal instructional supervisors; and (c) explore the roles played by headteachers' and teachers' beliefs, values, and attitudes towards internal instructional supervision. Moreover, to obtain information about internal instructional supervision, teachers have to be surveyed because they are supervised by and are closest to the headteachers, and any changes affecting the instructional supervision process have to involve teachers. Accordingly, there is a need to ascertain the views of headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers regarding the current as well as the preferred practices of internal instructional supervision in Kenyan public secondary schools.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools from the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior government education officers.

Major Research Question

The following was the major research question in the current study:

> What changes would headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers recommend in the practices of internal instructional supervision and staff development in secondary schools, and why would they recommend these changes?

Specific Research Questions

The following specific questions guided the focus of the study:

1. What are the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers regarding the following aspects, and to what extent do the perceptions of these three groups differ on:
    a. the purposes of internal instructional supervision,
    b. the foci of internal instructional supervision,
    c. the practices of internal instructional supervision?
2. What are the opinions of headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers regarding the documents and guidelines on internal instructional supervision provided by the Ministry of Education?
3. What are the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers regarding the following aspects, and to what extent do the perceptions of these three groups differ with respect to:
    a. the actual and needed skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors,
    b. the existence and adequacy of staff development programs for teachers and headteachers,
    c. the existence and adequacy of staff development programs for teachers?
4. What are the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers regarding the following aspects, and to what extent do the perceptions of these three groups differ on:
    a. the major advantages of internal instructional supervision,

   b. the problems and issues associated with internal instructional supervision,
   c. their degree of satisfaction with current internal instructional supervision practices and procedures?

5. What are the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers regarding the following aspects, and to what extent do the perceptions of these three groups differ with regard to:
   a. the main barriers to staff development for teachers,
   b. the main barriers to staff development for headteachers,
   c. the changes needed to improve internal instructional supervision and staff development,
   d. the potential involvement of deputy headteachers, department heads, and subject heads in assisting headteachers to carry out internal instructional supervision?

These questions were designed to generate information regarding the perceptions of headteachers and teachers of internal instructional supervision in Kenyan public secondary schools. The responses to the questions should lead to a greater awareness of the current state of internal instructional supervision in the schools.

The purposes, foci, and practices of instructional supervision as identified by Oliva and Pawlas (2001), Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2001), Beach and Reinhartz (2000), and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) served as the framework for the examination of instructional supervision in Kenyan public secondary schools.

Assumptions

The following were the major assumptions underlying the study:

1. Secondary school headteachers have views about desirable instructional supervision practices that can be identified through questionnaires and interviews.
2. Internal instructional supervision is important for secondary schools, pupils, teachers, and the Ministry of Education.
3. The information provided by headteachers and teachers accurately reflects their views, thoughts, and feelings about internal instructional supervision practices.
4. Instructional supervision programs will be most effective when supervisory practices and procedures are understood by all the major stakeholders in the schools: pupils, teachers, headteachers, and support staff.
5. Headteachers and teachers are qualified to give views about internal instructional supervision practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools.
6. High-quality instructional supervision leads to improvement in teacher performance and student learning.
7. Internal instructional supervision is a very important strategy for improving instructional performance of school teachers; consequently, it increases their productivity as professionals.

These assumptions provided me with lenses for addressing fundamental questions relating to the instructional supervision process and its implications for practicing teachers and headteachers. Furthermore, the assumptions directed my approaches to investigating the practices of instructional supervision and in understanding teachers' and headteachers' beliefs and conceptions about supervision practices and procedures and their connections to professional development of these two groups of professionals. Darling-Hammond (1990), Darling-Hammond and Sclan (1992), and Richardson (1996) observed that teaching has to do, in part, with the formation of beliefs and that views regarding supervision depend on beliefs about teaching. For example, when teaching is viewed as a profession, supervision places more emphasis on teacher preparation and ongoing opportunities for learning, on self-evaluation of teaching, and on goals and the context of instruction and student needs (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1992). On the other hand, a bureaucratic conception of teaching emphasizes compliance with predetermined standards to which teachers must measure up and involves monitoring the work of teachers to ensure continued compliance with prescriptions and expectations (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002).

Definition of Key Terms

Internal instructional supervision: Supervision conducted by school-based supervisors, such as headteachers, who are based within the institution in which supervision is taking place. It may be for either formative or summative purposes.

Supervisory practices: Practices employed by instructional supervisors as they work with teachers; they include, for example, observing classroom teaching, holding conferences with teachers, and analyzing students' opinions about teachers.

Staff development: The provision of appropriate opportunities for the staff to develop their professional practices, beliefs, and understandings to improve their performance.

Formative evaluation: The process in which a supervisor observes a teacher's classroom performance for the purpose of helping the teacher improve instruction without the necessity of making personnel decisions (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

Summative evaluation: Administrative assessments of a teacher's performance based on data obtained from both within and without the classroom for purposes of making personnel decisions concerning, for example, contract renewal, tenure, merit pay, teaching assignments, and placement on a career ladder (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) have suggested that (a) there should be a clear, formal, described distinction between supervision for formative evaluation and supervision for summative evaluation; (b) where possible, separate personnel should perform the two types of evaluations; (c) where the separation between summative and formative evaluations is not possible, teachers should know beforehand the differences among the various processes and which one is being used at a particular time; and (d) failing to isolate summative and formative evaluations may lead to a lack of trust among teachers or undermine their credibility.

Secondary school: In Kenya, the name applied to the second level of the 8-4-4 system of formal education; it involves four years of instruction—forms 1 to 4. Secondary education "prepares young people between ages 14-17 years for higher education, training, and the world of work" (Ministry of Education, 1994, p. 47).

Principal: In this study the terms *principal*, *headteacher*, *headmaster*, and *headmistress* are used interchangeably to refer to an individual who occupies the highest official position in the school organization and whose responsibility, among other things, is to manage the school.

Education inspector: An official of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology who identifies and provides feedback on strengths and weaknesses in educational institutions in general for the purposes of improving the quality of education and the achievements of pupils and providing evidence of educational standards in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1999).

The recruitment of education inspectors is the prerogative of the Public Service Commission and is done from among serving teachers and headteachers following advertised positions and through interviews. There are two main categories of school inspectors; namely, generalists, who include education officers charged with inspecting all the areas of the school curriculum, especially those in-charge of primary schools; and subject specialists, who have the general as well as specialist areas and who are recruited to provide advisory and consultancy services to teachers and to headteachers on teaching of the various subjects in the schools.

Senior education officers: For the purposes of this study, senior education officers include the Chief Inspector of Schools (CIS), Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs), District Education Officers (DEOs), and Inspectors of Schools. The positions of these officers within the organizational structure of the Kenyan Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology are depicted in Appendix A.

Their respective roles in the promotion of education are as follows (Eshiwani, 1993; Kipkulei, 1998; Ministry of Education, 1994):

Chief Inspector of Schools (CIS): The head of the Inspectorate wing of the Ministry of Education and the Chief Advisor to the Director of Education (and Ministry) on education standards; responsible for providing consultancy services on curriculum and evaluation.

Provincial Directors Of Education (PDEs): Education officers responsible for (a) maintaining educational standards in the various provinces in Kenya, (b) advising and guiding the heads of educational institutions within the provinces, (c) inspecting and supervising all educational institutions within the provinces, and (d) coordinating curricular activities within the provinces.

District Education Officers (DEOs): Chief education officers responsible for managing and administering education matters in the various districts in Kenya. Their supervisory functions include (a) identifying, planning, implementing, coordinating, and developing educational standards in their respective districts; (b) giving professional advice, guidance, and interpretation of policy matters in education; (c) coordinating curricular activities; (d) inspecting and supervising secondary schools, postsecondary educational institutions, institutes of technologies, and private schools; (e) coordinating staff development matters, including promotion, welfare, and discipline of teaching and nonteaching staff; (f) planning, coordinating, and supervising all educational institutions in the districts on term dates; (f) ensuring that various resources available to educational institutions, including land, finance, teachers, time, facilities, and equipment, are managed properly and utilized in the most cost-effective manner to effectively provide quality and relevant education; and (g) ensuring that time available to education is used wisely to enhance teaching and learning, to improve standards of education and training, and to increase opportunities for education by utilizing the existing educational facilities and equipment for optimal benefits.

Unqualified/untrained teachers: Teachers recruited to teach in primary and secondary schools who have not been professionally educated through in-service or pre-service programs (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, 1993). Unqualified or untrained teachers are not fully conversant with the current teaching strategies.

Underqualified teachers: Teachers who may be trained through pre-service or in-service training programs, but are posted to schools or colleges to teach at levels for which they are not qualified (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, 1993). In Kenya, cases of underqualified teachers, especially in secondary schools, teachers' colleges, polytechnics, and institutes of science and technology, exist because of the need to provide teachers for specialized curriculum areas where the number of qualified teachers handling these areas is very small.

Limitations

The following were the limitations of the study:

1. The varying conceptions of instructional supervision may influence the quality of responses given by the headteachers.

2. The study is limited to the extent that perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers are reflective of current and preferred internal instructional supervision practices and procedures.

3. The study is limited with respect to the instruments used to obtain the necessary data, which include questionnaires (see Appendixes B and C) and interviews (see Appendix D). With mailed questionnaires, direct control over the responses is uncontrollable; the possibility that respondents may provide answers they believe the researcher desires cannot be ruled out. I believe the explanation pro[illegible]ed to the participants in the introductory letters about the purpose and nature of the study would alleviate this potential problem.

Because the participants involved in the interviews were volunteers, characterized by their enthusiasm for improving practices of internal instructional supervision and staff development, their responses may have been influenced by their very nature and dedication toward the study. Further to this, draft interview protocols for (a) teachers and headteachers and (b) District Education Officers (DEOs), Provincial Directors of education (PDEs), and the Chief Inspector of Schools (CIS) were designed by me, the researcher, the possibility that interviewees may have had difficulty expressing their thoughts and ideas outside the boundaries imposed by the questions cannot be ruled out. Overall, the limitations inherent in both questionnaires and interviews were acknowledged and recognized by the reseasrcher.

4. The findings of this study apply to headteachers', teachers' and senior education officers' perceptions of the state of instructional supervision and staff development in selected public secondary schools and may not be generalizable to other

populations in the country. There may be considerable variability in the amount and type of instructional supervision that headteachers, teachers, and senior education officers have experienced in different schools.

5. The conceptual framework is developed primarily from literature and research in developed countries, especially Canada and the United States, which might be at odds with the supervisory orientations and beliefs of practicing teachers and internal instructional supervisors in Kenya. However, I believe that information regarding the supervisory practices of the developed countries would provide “an extra set of eyes” for examining the Kenyan situation. In any case, the increasing interdependence and sharing of knowledge and experiences would result in similarities across countries.

Delimitations

The study had the following delimitations:

1. The study was confined to 200 randomly selected public secondary schools in Kenya because of limited financial resources and the time available to me.

2. The study was delimited to the perceptions of headteachers and teachers employed by the Teachers Service Commission to serve in Kenyan public secondary schools and senior education officers employed by the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology.

Significance

Skills and competencies identified in this study may be used by school heads to enable them to assist secondary school teachers in bettering their teaching and to foster in secondary school teachers a commitment to professional growth and enthusiasm for learning new instructional skills. The overall outcome would be the improvement of the standards of secondary education, the general improvement of the performance of pupils in the final examinations, and the increased number of pupils seeking further education and training or entering the job market.

The study provides headteachers with another source of information regarding internal instructional supervisory practices, in addition to that provided by the inspectorate. This information may be used by individual teachers to assist secondary school teachers in assessing how instructional resources could be used appropriately and developed for effective teaching.

The findings of the study do give a clear view of the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices in secondary schools. This information should enable school administrators to create new instructional conditions under which headteachers and teachers can work more effectively and to identify staff development needs for school heads and teachers. In other words, this information can provide a database for the systematic development and application of schools' inventories of teachers' skills and potentials. Although the study was limited to headteachers and teachers in Kenyan public secondary schools, the findings may have implications for other types of schools in Kenya. I believe that if the discrepancies between the perceptions of headteachers and teachers regarding the current and preferred practice of instructional supervision can be shown, educators from such educational institutions may profit from such information as they attempt to identify and implement supervisory practices that are deemed more desirable in improving instruction. Internal instructional supervision could help institutionalize and concretize improvement efforts by providing feedback regarding best practices. Furthermore, an analysis of practices of instructional supervision could generate information regarding needed changes for improvement. Understanding the perceptions and preferences of teachers and headteachers can help shape the supervisory process in the schools.

At the ministerial level, educational leaders may refer to the findings emerging from this study as an educational rationale for developing and adopting guidelines, standards, and regulations concerning effective internal instructional supervision in secondary schools. The findings can also be used by the Ministry of Education to improve headteachers' performance in internal instructional supervision by identifying the areas needing improvement. This improvement process may be conducted through training and professional development programs. The findings from this study should lead to the identification of gaps in research in school-based internal instructional supervision and in designing future research in this area. Finally, this study is also significant in that, based on the record at the Kenyan Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology headquarters, Nairobi, which is responsible for granting permission to conduct research in educational and other institutions, no study of this nature has been conducted in Kenya.

Organization of the Thesis

In the first chapter an overview of the study is given. Included in this chapter is the background to the problem, the statement of the problem, the purposes of the study, research questions, assumptions of the study, definition of key terms, and limitations, delimitations, and significance of the study. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature and research. The major topics are the concepts of supervision and instructional supervision, the foci of instructional supervision, instructional supervisors, supervisory practices and procedures, and staff development. The third chapter deals with research methods and procedures. Included in this chapter are descriptions of the population for the study, the sampling design, instrumentation, data collection procedures, validity and reliability of the study, and data analysis.

The results of data analysis are presented in four chapters. Chapter 4 provides demographic characteristics of teachers and headteachers and an analysis of internal instructional supervision. The fifth chapter discusses development activities for teachers and headteachers. Chapter 6 addresses advantages, problems, and suggested changes for effectiveness in practices and procedures of instructional supervision. The last chapter provides a summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study for practice, for policy, and for research, as well as personal reflections.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This section presents a review of the literature related to the study of instructional supervision. It includes literature in seven broad areas: (a) instructional leadership, (b) concepts of supervision, (c) instructional supervisors, (d) supervisory practices and procedures, (e) foci of instructional supervision, (f) models of instructional supervision, and (g) staff development. A theoretical framework for examining the practice of instructional supervision is included.

The literature reviewed is mostly from Western countries. The experience of instructional supervision in Western countries is an important source of knowledge that could yield useful insights for the improvement of the current practice of instructional supervision in Kenyan public secondary schools. Instructional supervision is a relatively "virgin land" that has not been addressed in the field of educational research in Kenya.

Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership has been discussed increasingly in teacher education literature over the years; has been a key subject in many professional development conferences, workshops, and seminars; and has received a great deal of attention and interest among school administrators (Sullivan & McCabe, 1988). The major reason for the increased interest in instructional leadership, as Sullivan and McCabe noted, relates to its central role in determining effective educational programs. Furthermore, the literature regarding effective schools (e.g., Andrews, Basom, & Basom, 1991; Andrews & Soder, 1987; Andrews, Soder, & Jacoby, 1986; Wiles & Bondi, 2000) has consistently indicated that most effective schools are characterized by, among other things, strong instructional leadership. However, instructional leadership has only rarely been defined in educational research, and determining the parameters of instructional leadership and the manner in which its function fits into an overall view of the principal's role in effecting school processes and outcomes has also been problematic (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Heck, Larsen, & Marcoulides, 1990).

A review of the literature indicates varying definitions of the term *instructional leadership*. For example, Smith and Andrews (1989; as cited in Blasé and Blasé, 1999b) defined instructional leadership as a blend of several tasks, such as supervision of classroom instruction, staff development, and curriculum development. To Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), instructional leadership focuses on teaching and learning by emphasizing the subject matter content, the principles of learning, and the teaching process. Wanzare and da Costa (2001)—in synthesizing the works of Acheson (1985), Greenfield (1985), De Bevoise (1984, and Keefe and Jenkins (1984, as cited in Wright, 1991)—regarded instructional leadership as (a) being directly related to the instructional process whereby teachers, learners, and the curriculum interact; (b) including those activities that the school principal undertakes to develop productive and satisfying working environment for teachers and desirable learning conditions and outcomes for students; (c) encompassing those actions that a school principal undertakes or delegates to others to facilitate student learning; and (d) including the principal's role in providing direction, resources, and support to improve teaching and learning in the school. Furthermore, Sheppard (1996), in presenting an operational definition of instructional leadership, distinguished between broad and narrow views of instructional leadership. In the narrow view, he argued, instructional leadership refers to those actions that are directly related to teaching and learning and includes observable behaviors, such as classroom supervision. Used in this sense, instructional leadership is viewed as a separate entity from administration. In the broad view, instructional leadership entails all leadership activities that affect student learning. Such activities may include the instructional leader's involvement in routine managerial behaviors as well as in other organizational and teacher culture issues. The distinction between broad and narrow forms of instructional leadership implies that it is possible to differentiate between 'direct' and 'indirect' instructional leadership behaviors of the instructional leader (Murphy, 1990; Kleine-Kracht, 1993).

And, Begley (1995) described instructional leadership as the "clear articulation of educational philosophy, extensive knowledge about effective educational practices and a clear understanding of the policy of schooling and practices" (p. 407).

Therefore, instructional leadership includes the principal's myriads of routine job tasks and responsibilities, such as monitoring teaching and learning, facilitating exchange of interaction with teachers and students, facilitating staff development of teachers, and ensuring conducive teaching and learning environment. It could also include the principal's functions, such as (a) observing classroom teaching, (b) evaluating teacher performance, (c) helping teachers to identify instructional weaknesses for improvement, and (d) encouraging teachers to focus on student learning.

However, most writers were of the view that there is no single definition of instructional leadership or specific guidelines or direction as to what an instructional supervisor does (Flash, 1989). As Chell (1995) noted, the majority of writers in the area create their own definitions of what this concept entails, and, as a result, meanings vary considerably among practitioners and researchers. Furthermore, there is some controversy regarding the circumstances in which instructional leadership would be appropriate. For example, Sheppard (1996), in crediting the works of Glickman (1991) and Sergiovanni (1991), observed that principals of successful schools are not instructional leaders, but coordinators of teachers as instructional leaders and that instructional leadership is not appropriate in circumstances in which teachers are committed, well-trained, and competent.

The following section reviews the literature regarding strategies for facilitating instructional leadership.

Fostering Instructional Leadership

Because the principal's instructional leadership role is critical to developing and maintaining an effective school, to influencing teachers' instructional performance, and to attaining the highest academic achievement of students, efforts must be made to foster this type of leadership. A review of the literature and research suggests the following major strategies to facilitate instructional leadership in the schools (Blair, 1991; Daresh, 1991; Jesse, 1989; Lee, 1990; Murphy, 1987; Weindling, 1990; Wekesa, 1993):

1. introducing courses regarding the management of curriculum and instruction in pre-service training programs to provide a foundation for developing aspiring principals with the knowledge to manage curriculum and instruction successfully;

2. limiting the principal's role to the primary functions of instructional and curricular supervision, program and professional development, and public relations;

3. encouraging principals to teach some classes;

4. enhancing principalship by (a) treating the position with high esteem, (b) offering attractive salaries, and (c) facilitating an understanding about the complexities of the roles;

5. developing and supporting professional development programs for teachers, principals, and vice-principals;

6. providing adequate time for instructional leadership; and

7. making instructional supervision part of an overall and effective leadership practice.

A major component of instructional leadership relates to supervision. This is examined in the following section.

Concepts of Supervision

A survey of the literature reveals many definitions of supervision that bear some element of uniqueness in focus and purpose. For example, Kosmoski (1997) defined supervision as "that leadership process whose ultimate purpose is to improve instruction, and thereby facilitate and promote successful student learning" (p. 14). Similarly, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) defined supervision as a means of offering teachers specialized help in improving teaching and learning. Furthermore, according to Krey and Burke (1989), "Supervision is instructional leadership that relates perspectives to behavior, clarifies purpose, contributes and supports organizational actions, coordinates interactions, provides for maintenance and improvement of instructional program, and assesses goal improvement" (p. 22).

The main purpose of supervision is the improvement of instruction by engaging teachers in instructional dialogue and by fostering professional growth of teachers. As

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) noted, "the overreaching purpose of supervision is to help teachers improve. The focus of this improvement may be what the teacher knows, the development of teaching skills, the teacher's ability to make more informed professional decisions to problem-solve better, and to inquire into his or her own practice" (p. 205).

A major aspect of supervision in teacher education relates to evaluation. As noted by Sergiovanni (2001), "When the focus of supervision is on teaching and learning, evaluation is an unavoidable aspect of the process. . . . Evaluation is, and will remain, a part of supervision, and this really cannot be ignored" (p. 255). The following section examines different conceptions and functions of evaluation.

Evaluation

The terms *supervision* and *evaluation* are sometimes used interchangeably both in the literature and by practitioners. However, supervision and evaluation are quite distinct from one another. According to Embretson, Ferber, and Langager (1984), supervision is a developmental process that promotes continuing growth and development of staff members in teaching and in staff motivation, and evaluation is a management function designed to maintain organizational effectiveness, establish standards for, and appraise staff performance. To Sergiovanni (2001), evaluation is a process of determining the extent to which teachers measure up to preexisting standards, which may include a program, a goal, teaching intent, a list of "desirable" teaching competencies, or performance criteria. And Gullatt and Ballard (1998) described evaluation as "a function of leadership concerned with improving, enhancing, and reinforcing classroom effectiveness" (p. 15).

Despite the different conceptions of evaluation, several writers seemed to agree on the following definitions: (a) a process of collecting and using information to determine the worth—goodness or badness—of something (Daresh & Playko, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1990); (b) "the reflective process of gathering data through formal and informal means and then making decisions for action" (Drake & Roe, 1999, p. 280); (c) a means of making teachers aware of their practices, challenging them to think about their practices, and encouraging them to analyze and evaluate their practices and implement changes as needed (Gullatt & Ballard, 1998); (d) a way of showing concern for students, faculty, staff, and community (Drake & Roe, 1999); and (e) a diagnostic role in which teachers seek assistance from inspectors and evaluators in determining his or her performance (Koinange, 1980).

Therefore, evaluation in the context of teaching is a measure of teacher competence based on data collected formally or informally that may be conducted for several reasons. On the other hand, supervision is a process of working with teachers to help them to maintain and to improve the teaching and learning in the school.

Functions of Evaluation

Review of the literature indicates two competing objectives for evaluation—summative and formative—based on their functions (Harris & Ovando, 1992; Mo, Conners, & McCormick, 1998).

Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation or developmental evaluation (Reynolds & Martin-Reynolds, 1988) helps teachers to diagnose and to solve instructional problems for purposes of making improvements and to further their professional development (Acheson & Smith

(1986). Also, as Parker (1995) explained, "Formative evaluation or supervision is concerned with feedback for the purpose of improvement" (p. 11).

Formative evaluation plays an important role in the promotion of professional growth of teachers (Alberta Teachers Association, 1995). Toward this end, according to the National Centre for Education Statistics (1994; as cited in Duke, 1995a), formative evaluation serves four main purposes: (a) to guide improvement of teaching skills, (b) to recognize and to reinforce teaching excellence, (c) to help teachers focus on student outcomes, and (d) to plan in-service education activities.

In formative evaluation, information is collected and used to understand, to correct, and to increase the effectiveness of ongoing activity. However, with respect to teaching, formative evaluation is less concerned with judging and rating teachers than with providing information that helps teachers learn more about their disciplines, about how students learn, and about teaching (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Greene (1992) noted that for teachers to change their teaching practices through formative evaluation, they must believe in the process of change and that educational change depends on what teachers do and think.

Linking Teacher Evaluation With Professional Development

Teacher evaluation should be linked to staff development (Iwanicki & Rindone, 1995). As Goldsberry (1997) noted, teacher evaluation "must be done for the kind of progressive professional development we want for our teachers" (p. 53). On this point, the New South Wales Department of School Education (1995) suggested that teacher appraisal should support and recognize individual achievement, provide directions for teacher development, and bring with it the opportunity for teachers to develop new skills or at least the ability to use existing skills in new situations; and the outcomes of appraisal should inform further teacher development, which may take a variety of forms including access to on-the-job and off-the-job learning, formal education, team teaching, networking, research, the writing of journal articles, and the preparation of case studies from action research.

Summative Evaluation

According to Beach and Reinhartz (2000), this type of evaluation serves the purpose of making decisions or judgments about the quality of teachers' overall instructional performance. Based on the works of Harris and Ovando (1992), who cited Ovando and McCleary (1991), Raths and Preskill (1982), ATA (1995), Duke (1995a), and Gullatt and Ballard (1998), summative evaluation involves judgments and actions relating to the following employment concerns: (a) retaining, promoting, and dismissing teachers; (b) validating the selection process; (c) granting teachers with merit pay; (d) giving administrators greater control over teachers job performance; (e) placing teachers on probation or remediation; and (f) certificating and transferring teachers.

However, Glickman et al. (2001), in synthesizing the works of McGral (1982) and Stiggins and Bridgeford (1984), argued that, although summative evaluation is necessary for employment decisions, it does not lead to instructional improvement for most teachers, and that summative evaluation can actually discourage instructional improvement by promoting negative feelings about evaluation that, in turn, can lead to a lack of participation and a reduced willingness on the part of teachers to alter classroom behaviors.

Separating Summative and Formative Evaluation

Both summative and formative evaluations have received much attention in recent literature as the teaching profession considers evaluation an integral part of staff development and the administration looks to evaluation data as evidence in accountability debates (Joan, 1986). However, a search of the literature reveals conflicting views regarding the separation of summative and formative evaluations as distinct categories of evaluation. For example, Podolsky (1984) and Airasian (1993; both as cited in Mo et al., 1998) argued that, because evaluation forms a continuum from being purely summative to being formative, and because the functions of the two types of evaluations are complementary, each containing aspects of the other, summative and formative evaluations cannot be separated into two distinct categories of evaluation.

Several writers (e.g., Acheson & Gall, 2003; Cangelosi, 1991; Daresh & Playko, 1995; Glickman et al., 2001; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Popham, 1988) advocated the separation of summative and formative evaluations of teachers because they serve two separate purposes and, consequently, must be performed by different evaluators. As Daresh and Playko put it, "Supervisors should strive to separate formative and summative evaluation as completely as possible, even to the extent of involving different people at each stage" (p. 292). Acheson and Gall, Glickman et al., and Popham proposed that, where possible, summative evaluation should be assigned to school administrators, such as principals, and formative evaluation to capable teacher colleagues. Another way of separating summative and formative evaluation, as suggested by Glickman et al., is to perform the two evaluations at different periods during the school year (e.g., summative evaluation in the fall and formative evaluation during the remainder of the year).

However, when such separation is impossible, teachers should be enlightened about the differences among the processes and which one is being used at that time (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Leaving such distinctions fuzzy and indefinite, Sergiovanni and Starratt argued, creates widespread lack of trust among teachers and undermines the formative potential of formative evaluation. Data gathered by formative evaluation must never be shared with summative evaluators unless the teacher being evaluated agrees to this sharing (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Popham, 1988).

Instructional Supervisors

Beach and Reinhartz (2000) defined an instructional supervisor as any individual who functions in a supervisory position in the school and who has the responsibility for working with teachers to increase the quality of student learning through improved instruction, and an instructional supervisor may include the principal, assistant principal, specialist consultant, and curriculum director. According to Deborah (1990), an instructional supervisor refers to an individual charged with the primary responsibility of providing leadership to teachers for the improvement of instruction. And Oliva and Pawlas (2001) concluded that, "ideally, supervisors provide help to all teachers, experienced and inexperienced, effective and ineffective. In reality, though, they will need to spend more time with the inexperienced and ineffective" (p. 47). Therefore, an instructional supervisor is an individual who works with teachers closely to facilitate their instructional performance with the object of improving student academic achievement.

The literature suggested that school principals are the chief instructional leaders of their schools (e.g., Glickman et al., 2001; Sergiovanni, 1995). The ideal of the principal as an instructional leader has also been voiced in the works of other writers (e.g., Kasim, 1995; Koger, 1987; Magnus-Brown, 1988; McEwan, 2001; Patterson, 1990; Ustin, 1990). Other individuals who may serve as instructional supervisors besides the school principals include assistant principals, instructional lead teachers, departmental heads, and master teachers (Glickman et al., 2001; Patterson, 1990). Glickman et al. noted that schools vary with respect to who carries out supervisory responsibilities; that, whereas some schools assign responsibilities to departmental heads, assistant principals, guidance counselors, and lead teachers, in other schools the principal is responsible for supervision. The following section examines the principal's role as an instructional leader.

The Principal as an Instructional Leader

The school principal has been traditionally viewed as the instructional leader whose leadership role is central to establishing and maintaining an effective school. According to Foriska (1994) and Worner and Brown (1993), the principal's instructional leadership is, undoubtedly, the single most important responsibility assigned to the principal and is critical to the development and maintenance of an effective school. What is the role of a principal as an instructional leader? As a review of the literature and research indicated, the school principal is involved in numerous instructional leadership roles:

1. managing curriculum and instruction (Krug, 1993; Sheppard, 1996; Weber, 1991, as cited in Terry, 1996; Williams, 2000) by providing information and direction to teachers regarding instructional methods ; by being involved in curriculum development; and by protecting instructional time.

2. supervising and evaluating teachers (Chell, 1995; Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Heck et al., 1990; Krug, 1993; Murphy, 1990, as cited in Marsh, 1997; Sheppard, 1996; Terry, 1996; Wildy & Dimmock, 1993; Wiles & Bondi, 2000; Williams, 2000) by (a) guiding and supporting instructional activities, (b) encouraging innovative teaching, (c) helping teachers with special instructional problems, and (d) facilitating communication across classrooms;
3. monitoring student progress (Cross & Rice, 2000; Heck et al., 1990; Krug, 1993; Murphy, 1990, as cited in Murphy, 1990; Sheppard, 1996; Terry, 1996) by (a) reviewing test assessment information and evaluating pupil, class, and school levels of performance and progress and using the results to assist teachers, students, and parents in developing strategies to improve instructional programs; (b) providing quality control checks on the preparation of students; (c) leading teachers to analyze student data to evaluate curriculum and instructional approaches; (d) clarifying to teachers that testing, interpretation, and productive response are expected and that the process will be monitored; and (e) using both criterion and standardized testing to diagnose student problems, to evaluate their progress, and to use test results to refine school goals;
4. promoting an effective instructional climate (Chell, 1995; Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Heck, et al., 1990; Krug, 1993; Murphy, 1990, as cited in Marsh, 1997; Sheppard, 1996; Terry, 1996; Weber, 1981, as cited in Larry, 1995) by (a) creating excitement, (b) communicating a message to students that learning has a value outside the classroom, (c) providing a safe and structured

environment, (d) facilitating child-centered activities, and (e) establishing positive high expectations and standards for student behavior;

5. providing and facilitating the acquisition of the resources needed for learning to occur (Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Heck et al., 1990; Patterson, 1990; Wekesa, 1993; Wildy & Dimmock, 1993);
6. facilitating staff development programs and activities for teachers (Chell, 1995; Sheppard, 1996; Terry, 1996; Wildy & Dimmock, 1993; Wiles & Bondi, 2000) by providing opportunities for teachers to continue engaging in professional development programs; and
7. monitoring teachers' instructional progress by setting improvement goals (Southworth, 2002; Rosenholtz, 1986, as cited in Wilson & Wood, 1996) by (a) looking at teachers' weekly plans, (b) visiting classrooms, (c) examining samples of pupils' work, and (d) observing the implementation of school policies.

Also, the principal's instructional leadership roles may involve facilitating teaching and classroom practices by (a) formulating and communicating school goals; (b) organizing classrooms for instruction; (c) maintaining high visibility; and (d) providing incentives for teachers and students (Heck et al., 1990; Sheppard, 1996, citing both Hallinger, 1992, and Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). In addition, the principal's instructional leadership role includes formulating a clear vision of what an effective school for the community would be and recognizing student needs (Findley & Findley, 1992; Weindling, 1990; Wekesa, 1993). A vision is a descriptive statement regarding what the school should be like at a specified time period in the future. According to Speck (1999), the principal must ensure that all the school's stakeholders—teachers, nonteaching staff, students, parents, and the entire community— collaborate in formulating a vision of the school that reflects their hopes and dreams, their interests and needs, and their values and beliefs about schooling. All the stakeholders should sit down, talk about it, and together use data-driven decision making to determine exactly where the school is now and where it wants to be in the future. Teachers, especially, must embrace the school's vision and provide the learning experiences, skills, and knowledge that enable students to achieve high academic performance (Cross & Rice, 2000).

A school vision is beneficial in several ways. For example, it (a) helps school's stakeholders have a sense of what is important in their particular setting, (b) helps school administrators to set priorities, and (c) assists teachers to direct lessons and students to prepare for classes (Robbins & Alvy, 2003).

These instructional leadership roles of the school principal are interrelated and provide a framework for planning, guiding, directing, and evaluating supervision. In sum, because effective instructional leadership is the foundation of school improvement efforts (Findley & Findley, 1992), the role of the principal, as instructional leader, must involve all the beliefs, decisions, strategies, activities, and tactics that are focused toward high instructional effectiveness for the benefit of students.

Constraints in the Role of the Principal as Instructional Leader

Several constraints exist in the area of the role of the principal as an instructional leader. As Reitzug (1997) noted, "In practice, principal instructional leadership with respect to supervision has been problematic for several reasons" (p. 325). The following major constraints frustrate the principal's instructional leadership role: (a) lack of a firm knowledge base regarding what instructional leadership entails (Murphy, 1987; Ornstein, 1991); (b) fragmentation of the principal's time devoted to the various roles in the school (Heck et al., 1990; Wanzare & da Costa, 2001); (c) disputed notions of what effective teaching involves (Ornstein, 1991); (d) other pressing organizational demands that are more defined and much more "do-able" than demand for instructional leadership (Murphy, 1987); (e) difficulty in determining the manner in which the principal's instructional leadership fits into an overall view of the principal's role in affecting school processes and outcomes (Heck et al., 1990); (f) ill preparation of the principals in the area of instructional leadership, especially at the pre-service training level (Acheson & Smith, 1986; Murphy, 1987; both as cited in Wanzare & da Costa, 2001; McEwan, 2001); (g) difficulty inherent in implementing all the tasks associated with the principalship, both management and leadership (Terry, 1996); (h) difficulty associated with determining the parameters of instructional leadership (Heck et al., 1990); (i) shortage of formal rewards associated with instructional leadership, which deemphasizes the principal's leadership activities (Murphy, 1987); (j) complexity and ambiguity of instructional leadership role (Firth, 1987); and (k) difficulty in coordinating and fulfilling the sometimes diverse needs and goals of the various sub-groups in the school system, for example parents and communities (Heck et al., 1990).

Skills and Attributes of Instructional Supervisors

A survey of the literature shows that instructional supervisors must be highly skilled in their supervisory responsibilities. As Oliva and Pawlas (2001) noted, a supervisor must have a wide repertoire of knowledge, skills, and techniques to fulfill the various supervisory tasks to which they are called. Emphasizing this point, Wiles and

Bondi (2000) commented that "as we enter the twenty-first century, the role of the supervisor will be defined by certain competencies that the individual brings to the job" (p. 23). Among the major skills required of instructional supervisors include the following (Chell, 1995; Kitavi & Wan der Westhuizen, 1997; Wiles & Bondi, 2000): (a) interpersonal skills, which include those of communication, motivation, decision making, problem solving, and conflict management; (b) technical skills, which include ways to approach goal setting, assessment, planning, instructional observation, and research and evaluation; (c) information skills; (d) human relations skills; (e) administrative skills (influencing, recording); (f) skills for managing change; and (g) self-awareness skills.

Also, instructional supervisors should be (a) knowledgeable in instructional leadership, curriculum and instruction, and evaluation (Chell, 1995; Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Wiles & Bondi, 2000); and (b) experts on instruction and knowledgeable about the latest and best methods (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

To prepare school administrators, especially principals, for an instructional supervisory role, pre-training programs should incorporate courses in instructional supervision. However, as noted by Anderson (1989) and Oliva and Pawlas (2001), pre-service training never prepares principals fully for the realities of a principalship; and, as a result, most of the learning about principalship in general, and supervisory skills and abilities specifically, can be acquired through on-the-job training; for example, by participating with groups of teachers in drafting plans for various activities or in writing curriculum guides. Similarly, principals can improve their supervisory abilities by participating in workshops and conferences sponsored by teacher education and other professional associations, by establishing their own professional libraries, and by regularly reading professional journals that have the most significance for them and the teachers they supervise (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

To evaluate their effectiveness, especially in the supervision of instruction, and to gain feedback on their performance, supervisors should (a) evaluate themselves regularly, systematically, and continuously; (b) request regularly and systematically that other teachers evaluate their effectiveness; and (c) be evaluated by their administrators. In Kenya, headteacher supervisory effectiveness may be evaluated by senior government education officers (e.g., school inspectors, senior inspectors of schools, district education officers, and provincial directors of education).

Supervisory Practices and Procedures

This section reviews practices and procedures of instructional supervision that have received a great deal of treatment in the education literature. The major ingredients and relevant perspectives associated with these practices and procedures are highlighted and discussed.

A survey of the literature reveals a variety of practices and procedures that instructional supervisors, such as school principals, may employ as they work with teachers. According to Beach and Reinhartz (1989), *supervisory practices* refer to

> specific procedures and techniques that [instructional] supervisors use when working with teachers. . . . these procedures and techniques are essential to supervisors in the observation and documentation of teaching-learning behaviors and contribute to the overall effectiveness of the instructional supervision process. (p. 183)

Glickman et al. (2001) suggested that supervisors should use different supervisory practices that come from their own philosophies and beliefs. Sergiovanni and Starratt

(2002), concurring with Beach and Reinhartz (2000), noted that the choice of particular supervisory practices will depend on the kinds of teachers with whom supervisors work in their schools. In their view, instructional supervisors should match their supervisory practices with teachers' stages and levels of concerns, abilities in abstract thinking, level of cognitive complexity, learning styles, and motivational needs.

Instructional supervisors may work with teachers in the following two broad ways that direct and affect significantly teacher instruction and, as a result, student learning (Kleine-Kracht, 1993; Liu, 1984, as cited in Daresh & Playko, 1995; Peterson, 1989): (a) direct and (b) indirect.

Direct Supervision Practices

Direct instructional leadership practices include the immediate interactions with teachers and other personnel to address classroom, teaching, and student performance and curricular concerns. Direct supervisory practices can be grouped into two broad categories relative to supervision: curriculum supervision and instructional supervision (Jesse, 1989; Ornstein, 1991). These are examined in the following section.

Curriculum Supervision

According to Oliva and Pawlas (2001), curriculum includes (a) all in-school experiences, including classroom, learning experiences, student activities, use of the learning resource center, assemblies, use of the cafeteria, and social functions; and (b) out-of-school learning experiences directed by the school, including homework, field trips, and the use of community resources.

The following are the major direct instructional leader's responsibilities associated with curriculum supervision (Murphy, 1990; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Robbins

& Alvy, 2003): (a) providing the forum or setting to facilitate teacher curriculum and program discussions, either individually or in groups; (b) ensuring curriculum implementation; (c) facilitating curriculum needs assessment involving parents, teachers, and students; (d) coordinating the curriculum (e.g., by translating the curriculum knowledge into meaningful curricular programs, by matching instructional objectives with curriculum materials and standardized tests, and by ensuring curriculum continuity; and (e) promoting the coverage of syllabus content (e.g., by ensuring that the content of specific courses is covered in class and extended outside of class by developing and conforming homework policies.

Instructional Supervision

Drake and Roe (1999) defined supervision of instruction as the process through which the principal attempts to work with teachers and other staff members cooperatively to improve teaching and learning in the school. Used in this sense, supervision of instruction, by design, is a developmental process through which instructional leaders can reinforce teaching practices that improve student learning.

The following are the major direct instructional supervisory functions of the instructional leader (Murphy, 1990; Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1991): (a) making frequent visits to classrooms, observing, soliciting and giving feedback to teachers on instructional methods and materials; (b) assessing the instructional program; (c) promoting quality instruction by ensuring and coordinating instructional programs and defining recommended methods of instruction; (d) supervising and evaluating instruction (e.g., by ensuring that school goals are translated into practice at the classroom level and monitoring classroom instruction); and (e) allocating and protecting instructional time (e.g., by providing teachers with uninterrupted blocks of instructional time and ensuring that basic skills and academic subjects are taught.

Indirect Supervisory Practices

According to Kleine-Kracht (1993), indirect supervisory activities are concerned with the school's internal and external environments, physical and internal contexts of the classrooms, teaching, curriculum, and the meaning of the instructional supervisor's actions for teachers. Instructional supervisors involved in indirect supervisory practices facilitate leadership in other personnel in the schools (e.g., teachers and departmental heads) in the following major ways (Daresh & Liu, 1985; Little & Bird, 1987; Nothern & Bailey, 1991; Peterson, 1989): (a) improving teaching and learning conditions (e.g., by ensuring clean, safe, healthy, and productive learning environments, being aware of and dealing with minor problems and issues before they become major problems, and providing teaching and learning resources, materials, and incentives to pursue new ideas and create new options); (b) helping them to set school-level instructional standards; and (c) understanding teachers' instructional concerns and classroom conditions and offering needed assistance to address them.

Foci of Instructional Supervision

The literature suggests instructional supervisors may focus on a variety of issues and concerns during their supervision process. The foci of the supervision process may vary from one supervisor to another, depending on the purposes that supervision is expected to achieve. For example, during classroom observation the supervisor may focus on (a) the aspects of the teaching-learning process, such as contributions of students, individually and collectively, in answering questions, listening, performing tasks, and helping each other (Bollington, Hopkins, & West, 1990; Poster & Poster, 1993); (b) the teacher's movement in the classroom; and (c) the use of classroom artifacts of teaching, such as overhead transparencies, illustrations, demonstration set-ups, and unit and lesson plans (Pyle, 1998)

Other foci of instructional supervision, according to Stoops and Johnson's (1967) and Thacker's (1999; both as cited in Wilson & Wood, 1996) work, include (a) teachers' knowledge of the subject matter; (b) teaching techniques and instructional skills; (c) teachers' work habits, dependability, and record-keeping; (d) teachers' personal characteristics, such as personality, tact, voice, cooperation, sense of humor, initiatives, enthusiasm, and good grooming; (d) teachers' personal fitness; (e) teachers' human relationship with pupils, parents, and other members of the staff, administration, and the community; (f) teachers' professional conduct and ethics; (g) classroom environment; (h) teachers' involvement on noninstructional activities; (i) teachers' management of instructional time; and (j) teachers' management of student behavior.

Models of Instructional Supervision

Whereas there is a general agreement regarding the goal of instructional supervision, compelling views exist on (a) how this goal can be better realized, and (b) what effective strategies can be employed to conduct supervisory functions more effectively. The practice of instructional supervision has been influenced by different theoretical perspectives. As Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) noted, it is very difficult to engage in supervisory practices without being theoretical.

The field of supervision is full of models that explain supervisory practices and behaviors in which instructional supervisors and teachers are involved and constitute an essential part of school programs. To understand fully the concept of supervision of instruction, several models of supervision, as defined in the literature, are presented in this section. Supervision models that have received a great deal of attention in teacher education literature are those associated with developmental, clinical, self-, and peer supervision. These supervision models "give supervisors options as they implement and apply specific skills when working with various constituencies in schools" (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000, p. 125). Instructional supervisors could benefit from training in the use of the various supervisory models in order to use the most effective models for specific contexts. The following section examines developmental, clinical, self-, and peer supervision models and their associated practices.

Developmental Supervision

The Developmental Supervision model (Glickman et al., 2001) recognizes teachers as individuals who are at various stages of development. Glickman et al. asserted that instructional supervisors must foster thinking skills in teachers to help them diagnose classroom instruction, become aware of the many options for change, and think in more abstract terms. They further enumerated three major positions underlying developmental supervision: (a) teachers function at different levels of professional development; (b) because teachers operate at different levels of abstract thinking, ability, and effectiveness, there is a need to supervise them in different ways; and (c) the long-range goal of supervision should be to increase teachers' abilities in higher stages of thought.

Several practices may be associated with developmental supervision. Glickman et al. (2001), in describing the developmental process of supervision, identified three primary, interpersonal communication practices associated with developmental supervision that instructional supervisors may employ: (a) directive supervision, in which a supervisor engages primarily in the behaviors of clarifying the teacher's problems and asking the teacher for confirmation, presenting his or her own ideas on what information should be collected and how it will be collected, directing the teacher after collecting and analyzing the actions that need to be taken, demonstrating for the teacher appropriate teaching behavior, setting the standard for improvement based on the preliminary baseline information, and reinforcing by using materials or social incentives for carrying out the plan; (b) collaborative supervision, which includes the behaviors of listening, presenting, problem solving, and negotiating and in which the supervisor and teacher propose alternative actions for improvement (problem solving), and discuss and alter actions until a joint plan is agreed upon; and (c) nondirective supervision, in which the supervisor invites teachers of high abstraction to define instructional problems themselves, generate actions, think through consequences, and create their own action plans.

Several studies relating teacher and supervisor preferences for developmental supervision practices have revealed interesting findings. For example, in a survey of teachers and supervisors in Catholic high schools, Rossicone (1985) examined teacher preferences for and perceptions of directive, nondirective and collaborative supervisory styles in Brooklyn Diocese, Jamaica, New York. Seventy-six percent of the teachers preferred their supervisors to use a collaborative style, 20% preferred nondirective, and 4% preferred a directive style of supervision.

In a similar study Akinniyi (1987) sought to determine the relationship between a principal's perceptions of his/her supervisory behavior and the teachers' actual perceptions and preferences for supervision in the state of Wisconsin, US. Seventy-five percent preferred collaborative practices, 22% preferred the nondirective practice, and 3% preferred the directive approach. These studies indicate that, in general, teachers prefer a collaborative approach to supervision.

Clinical Supervision

A model for instructional supervision that has received a great deal of attention in recent years is clinical supervision. The use of the term *clinical supervision* dates back to the works of Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1973). The concept was developed to help teachers and supervisors together resolve classroom teaching problems (Tracy & MacNaughton, 1989). Goldhammer defined clinical supervision as "that phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face . . . interaction between the observer and the teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviors and activities for instructional improvement" (pp. 19-20). Cogan defined clinical supervision as follows:

> the rationale and practice designed to improve teacher's classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve students' learning by improving the teacher's classroom behavior. (p. 3)

According to Cogan, the principal data of clinical supervision relate to classroom events, "what the teacher and students do in the classroom during the teaching-learning process" (p. 9). Also, Acheson and Gall (2003) explained that in a supervisory context, the term "*clinical* is meant to suggest a face-to-face relationship between teacher and supervisor and a focus on the teacher's actual behavior in the classroom" (p. 9), that the primary emphasis of clinical supervision is on professional development, and that the primary goal of this practice of supervision is to help the teacher improve instructional performance.

Practices of Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision is normally regarded as a structure supervisory model consisting of certain stages or a cycle of phases. Throughout, models for the phases of clinical supervision are quite similar. For example, although Cogan (1973) originally had eight stages in this "cycle of supervision," Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1993), in agreement with Beach and Reinhartz (2000), have condensed the original phases into a more inclusive five-step model of clinical supervision: (a) pre-observation conference, (b) observation and collection of data, (c) analysis of data, (d) post-observation conference, and (e) post-observation analysis or evaluation. Therefore, it is clear that clinical supervision has, as its central goal, the improvement of instruction. This goal can be pursued through classroom observation, followed by analysis of classroom events and a teacher-supervisor conference.

Self-Assessment Supervision

A model of instructional supervision that involves teachers in self-evaluation is called *self-assessment supervision* (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000), *self-analysis* (Schain, 1988), *self-help explorative supervision* (Gebbard, 1990), or *self-directed supervision* (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Beach and Reinhartz defined self-assessment supervision as "the process of reflection that engages teachers in a variety of activities (e.g., inventories, reflective journals, and portfolios) for the purpose of instructional improvement by rethinking past instructional episodes and generating alternatives" (p. 145). They further explained that this supervisory strategy shifts the responsibility for change from supervisors to teachers and that teachers themselves are expected to evaluate their own performance to identify strengths and weaknesses associated with classroom instruction.

Several methods may be employed in self-assessment, each of which may be used alone or in combination with other methods: (a) videotaping, which may be done with the assistance of either an instructional supervisor or peers (Gebbard, 1990; Schain, 1988); (b) audiotaping (Harris, 1985); and (c) using live observers (Harris, 1985). Barber (1990) recommended the use of hybrid techniques because "no single type of evaluation can adequately meet the needs of all people involved in any evaluation process" (p. 224).

Peer Supervision

Peer supervision or peer coaching is a vital part of professional development that enables teachers to make changes in their instructional practices and procedures for the purpose of improving student performance (Acheson & Gall, 2003). Other terms that have been used to refer to peer supervision include *peer coaching* (Daresh & Playko, 1995; Sergiovanni, 2001), *co-operative professional development* (Harris & Ovando, 1992), and *peer assistance* (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1997).

The next section reviews the literature and research on peer supervision. It focuses on the following major aspects: (a) definitions of peer supervision, (b) justification for peer supervision, and (c) peer supervision practices.

Definitions of Peer Supervision

There are many definitions of the phrase *peer supervision.* For example, according to Daresh and Playko (1995), this term refers to a process by which two or more teachers supervise each other for their own professional growth by observing each other's classes and by sharing feedback. Also, James, Heller, and Ellis (1992) regarded peer supervision as "a process of professional guidance, help and growth" (p. 100).

Therefore, peer supervision or peer coaching is a reciprocal partnership in which colleague teachers examine and analyze each other's instructional work, share feedback about their teaching, and seek alternative solutions for their professional growth with the ultimate purpose of improving student learning.

Justification for Peer Supervision

Peer supervision is an important practice for enhancing teacher professional growth. Commenting on teacher involvement in peer supervision, Glickman et al. (2001) and Anderson and Pellicer (2001) observed that, because teachers naturally turn to each other for help more often that to supervisors and because supervision is concerned primarily with instructional improvement, (a) teachers helping teachers has become a formalized and well-received way of assuring direct assistance to teachers, (b) teachers are arguably the best and most abundant source of instructional leadership available in the schools, and (c) peer assistance and review have the potential to provide the alternative recognition of the expertise of teachers in critical areas of teaching and learning.

Therefore, because teachers normally prefer to have their colleagues advise and assist them with instructional work, peer supervision is a necessary vehicle for teachers to work jointly and to learn from one another toward a common goal: professional growth. Feedback from peer teachers, especially in a collegial model of assessment, can provide valuable and valid insights into teacher performance, professional growth opportunities, and encouragement for teachers.

Peer Supervision Practices

Peer teachers may be engaged in a variety of practices toward their professional growth as follows: (a) by forming teams of two or more colleagues that work jointly to improve performance (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Wiles & Bondi, 2000); (b) by using demonstration teaching by expert teachers as guest speakers, demonstrating new teaching models or methods for other teachers (Glickman et al., 2001; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001); and (c) by co-teaching, in which an expert peer and the teacher seeking assistance together plan, teach, and evaluate a lesson (Glickman et al., 2001; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

Staff Development

The role of teachers and school principals in promoting school improvement and student growth cannot be overemphasized. There is a considerable body of research literature that underscores the importance of providing ongoing professional learning experiences to teachers and school principals. For example, according to Drake and Roe (1999), Oliva and Pawlas (2001), and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), staff development is one of the primary domains of instructional supervision that views teaching as a profession within which the development of professional expertise through problem solving and inquiry are considered to be the main focus of supervision of instruction. Similarly, Daresh and Playko (1995) suggested that, because instructional supervisors are responsible for promoting staff development of teachers, supervisors need to be aware of effective practices associated with this development as they interact with teachers.

The next section reviews staff development as a means of facilitating the performance of teachers and school principals. The meaning, importance, and foci of staff development; providers of staff development; constraints associated with staff development; and strategies for facilitating staff development are addressed.

Defining Staff Development

A literature review indicates many definitions of the term *staff development*. For example, according to Scott (1998), staff development refers to choices aimed at erasing weaknesses, enhancing previous experiences, and developing new learnings. Also, Fullan (1990) explained that staff development includes any activity or process intended to improve skills, attitudes, understandings, or performance in current or future roles. Furthermore, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) defined staff development as a program of activities planned and carried out to promote the personal and professional development of teachers.

Therefore, staff development with reference to teacher education includes strategies put in place, formally or informally, to facilitate the performance of teachers and headteachers in their schools as they adjust to ongoing changes in professional practices. According to some authors (e.g., Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Sparks & Hirsh, 1997; Wiles & Bondi, 2000), the terms *staff development*, *professional development*, *in-service education*, *assistance*, and *continuing education* are often used interchangeably. In Kenya, as noted by the Ministry of Education (1994) and Olembo, Wanga, and Karagu (1988, both as cited in Wanzare & Ward, 2000), in-service training programs for teachers, especially, have been delivered under a variety of titles, such as refresher courses, upgrading courses, crash programs, and induction courses.

Foci of Staff Development for Teachers and School Principals

Several scholars and writers hold the view that staff development programs for teachers and school principals must address specific areas that focus on a variety of issues and concerns that meet the needs of the participants. For example, productive professional development experiences for teachers may include as their major foci the following content areas: (a) subject-area knowledge, knowledge and skills related to students, child development, learning theories, instructional and assessment strategies and skills, classroom management, counseling techniques, and technological innovations (Teberg, 1999; National Staff Development Council, 1995); and (b) change process and shifting dispositions related to students' and teachers' roles (Teberg, 1999)

Providers of Staff Development in Kenya

Several organizations may be involved in providing staff development experiences for teachers and school principals. For example, taking the Kenyan case, as the Ministry of Education (1994) and UNESCO (1994; both as cited in Wanzare & Ward, 2000) noted, staff development for teachers and headteachers may be funded and provided by the Inspectorate section of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, working in partnerships with the following organizations that are currently responsible for continuing education of teachers and headteachers: (a) Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), (b) Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE), (c) Kenya Institute of Education (KIE), (d) Kenya National Examinations Council (KNCE), (e) Teachers Advisory Centers (TACs), (f) Kenya Secondary School Heads Association (KSSHA), (g) Kenya National Union of teachers (KNUT), and (h) Teachers Associations, such as Nairobi Primary School Heads Association.

According to Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education (1993), the Ministry of Education Inspectorate and four agencies of the Ministry—namely, Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE), Kenya Institute of Education (KIE), and Kenya National Examinations Council (KNCE)—form the "teacher educator pentagon" of the Ministry of Education and are potential staff development providers. Their functions are coordinated by the Directorate of Education which "constitutes the operational hub for all continuing education pertaining to serving teachers and teacher educators" (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 66) and formulates policy guidelines regarding professional functions relating to education in Kenya (Ministry of Education, 1994). The interrelationship among the five agencies is depicted in Figure 1.

Constraints in the Staff Development of Teachers and Principals

A literature review indicated numerous constraints associated with teacher and principal staff development. In Kenya, as observed by Wanzare and Ward (2000), Republic of Kenya (1999), Lodiaga (1988), and Lodiaga and Olembo (1991), in-service training programs for Kenyan teachers and headteachers suffer from the following major problems: (a) lack of a clear government policy; (b) ill-defined objectives; (c) inappropriate practices; (d) lack of sufficient input from teachers and headteachers; (e) inadequate evaluation and follow-up; (f) lack of funds and materials to support the programs; (g) increasing costs of training with increasing numbers of those requiring training (as the school population expands), which poses a need for the most cost-

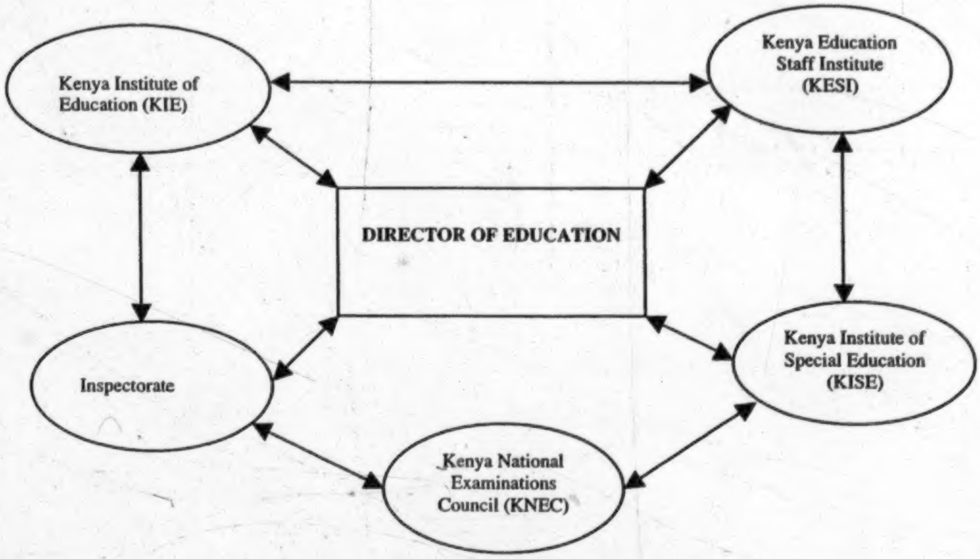
Kenya Institute of Education (KIE)
Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI)
DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
Inspectorate
Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE)
Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC)

Figure 1: Teacher In-Service Education Pentagon of the Ministry of Education (Adapted From: *Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education*, 1993, p. 67)

effective means of providing training (h) a combination of cultural diversity within Kenya, the increasing size of the population, and the unpredictable and rapid changes within Kenyan society, which require a great deal of initiative and efforts to mobilize and utilize local, indigenous resources in managing professional training; (i) trainee-personnel shortages; and (j) wrong deployment of staff—developing staff in one field and deploying them elsewhere.

Facilitating Staff Development

A literature search revealed the following major strategies to facilitate professional development of teachers and principals: (a) basing professional development programs on core standards for student learning and teaching and for what school leaders should know and be able to do (National Institute on Educational Governance, Finance, Policymaking, and Management, 1999; Sparks & Hirsh, 1997); (b) providing ongoing support early in the principalship and encouraging principals to articulate, reflect on, and evaluate their decisions, actions, and progress (Robin, Beeson, Baker, & Mallia, 1992); (c) facilitating options for follow-up on strategies on initiatives to enable participants to focus on new experiences and their impacts on student learning (National Staff Development Council, 1995); (d) making participation by teachers and school principals in professional development programs a voluntary activity (McNie, White, & Wight, 1991); and (e) providing opportunities to participants to practice, experiment, discuss, and analyze learning in non-threatening environments (Licklider, 1997).

Theoretical Framework

Instructional supervision is an important component of the instructional leadership role of the school principal that is primarily concerned with improving teaching and learning and creating an environment in which teachers' contribution to the achievement of organizational goals is possible and valued. This section presents a theoretical framework for conceptualizing instructional supervision, a major component of instructional leadership, and for understanding how supervision of instruction contributes to students' academic success. The following major components of the framework are covered: (a) purpose, (b) inputs, (c) process, (d) evaluation, (e) instructional supervisors, (f) outcomes, (g) school contexts, and (h) ongoing debate.

The theoretical framework for studying internal instructional supervision (Figure 2) was adapted and expanded from the frameworks developed by Krey and Burke (1989), West and Bollington (1990), Cousins (1995), and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002). This framework also draws from the knowledge gained through an analysis of multidimensional nature of instructional leadership and my interpretation of relevant literature on supervision of instruction.

Basic components

The following are the basic components of the instructional supervision framework:

Purpose

The purposes for which instructional supervision is undertaken are important in shaping supervisory practices and procedures. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), "the form supervision takes depends in part on the purposes envisaged" (p. 220).

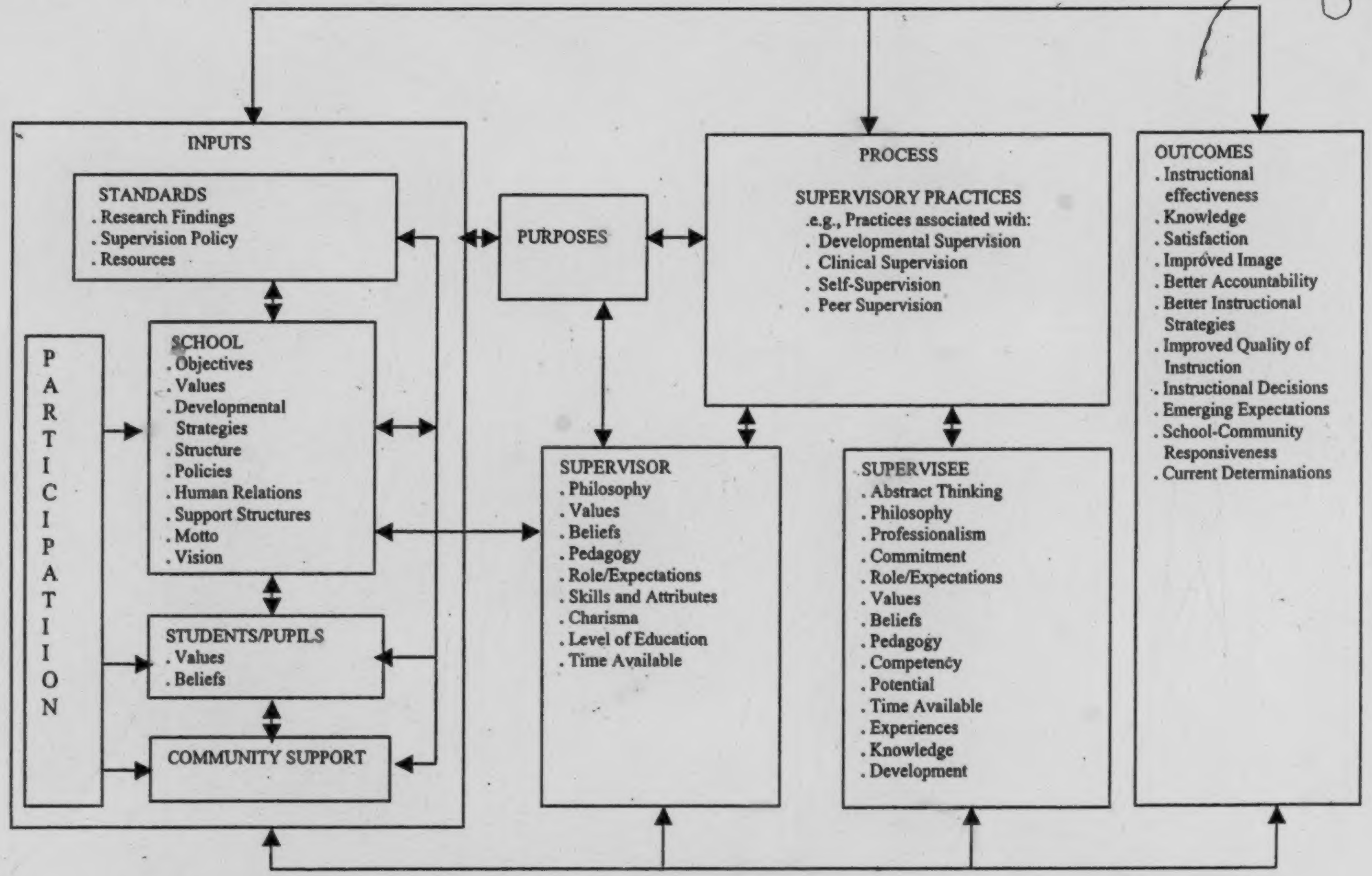
INPUTS
STANDARDS
. Research Findings
. Supervision Policy
. Resources
P A R T I C I P A T I O N
SCHOOL
. Objectives
. Values
. Developmental Strategies
. Structure
. Policies
. Human Relations
. Support Structures
. Motto
. Vision
STUDENTS/PUPILS
. Values
. Beliefs
COMMUNITY SUPPORT
PURPOSES
PROCESS
SUPERVISORY PRACTICES
.e.g., Practices associated with:
. Developmental Supervision
. Clinical Supervision
. Self-Supervision
. Peer Supervision
SUPERVISOR
. Philosophy
. Values
. Beliefs
. Pedagogy
. Role/Expectations
. Skills and Attributes
. Charisma
. Level of Education
. Time Available
SUPERVISEE
. Abstract Thinking
. Philosophy
. Professionalism
. Commitment
. Role/Expectations
. Values
. Beliefs
. Pedagogy
. Competency
. Potential
. Time Available
. Experiences
. Knowledge
. Development
OUTCOMES
. Instructional effectiveness
. Knowledge
. Satisfaction
. Improved Image
. Better Accountability
. Better Instructional Strategies
. Improved Quality of Instruction
. Instructional Decisions
. Emerging Expectations
. School-Community Responsiveness
. Current Determinations

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework: Instructional Supervision and Related Variables
(Adapted From: West & Bollington, 1990, p. 18; Burke & Burke, 1989, p. 89; Cousins, 1995, p. 202, and Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002, p. 7.

For example, Sergiovanni (2001) highlighted three broad purposes of supervision and evaluation and the corresponding supervisory practices as follows. If the purpose of supervision is quality control, the supervisor will monitor teaching and learning, visiting classrooms and students. On the other hand, if the purpose of supervision is professional development, the supervisor will concentrate on helping teachers grow, improve basic teaching skills and expand knowledge and use of teaching repertoires. And if the purpose of supervision is teacher motivation, the supervisor will endeavor to build and to nurture teachers' commitment to teaching and to school's educational platform.

Inputs

Inputs relating to supervision can be provided in several ways: employing standards for determining teacher effectiveness, information from research and best practices, policy guidelines relating supervision of instruction, and resourcing.

Standards. Instructional supervisors, as pointed out by Oliva and Pawlas (1997), may use a set of standards or evaluation criteria to judge teacher effectiveness. The purpose of evaluation criteria, according to Oliva and Pawlas, "is to assure fulfillment of a set of minimal standards and to provide a systematic procedure for studying and improving all phases of a school program" (p. 344). In their view, a possible source of supervision or evaluation standards is research. However, there is some controversy regarding the existence and adequacy of research based on supervision and evaluation for formative purposes. For example, whereas Duke and Stiggins (1990) noted that empirical research on the use of teacher evaluation systems for the purposes of promoting professional growth is lacking, Cousins (1995), observed that empirical research and reviews of practice concerning the nature and impact of performance appraisal systems has developed sufficiently to offer a clear picture of what exemplary practices look like. Also, Cousins, contributing to teacher supervision-standard debate, suggested that a variety of research-based criteria or explicit dimensions of performances, should be made available for teachers to consider in advance of the process of appraisal.

There are several benefits regarding the use of supervision standards. To Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), standards as frameworks have the following major advantages: These are to: (a) help define what is good practice; (b) help show how indicators of good teaching practice relate to each other; (c) help teachers and supervisors to talk about the indicators of good practice in meaningful ways; (d) help teachers use the indicators of good practice to study their own teaching; and (e) provide an overview of effective teaching with within which teachers can locate the problems, issues, and practices with which they deal in their own classrooms.

Findings from research and best practices. Instructional leadership is associated with complex problems that require fresh approaches to address them. Information from research and best practices can help instructional supervisors make strides forward with supervisory programs and meet organizational challenges. Instructional supervisors should endeavor to base their supervisory practices on a foundation of well-established and researched beliefs related to supervision of instruction. As Wiles and Bondi (2000) and Oliva and Pawlas (2001) noted, active and dynamic instructional supervisors are ones who take charge of many areas related to teaching and learning; who demonstrate new instructional techniques to teachers; who keep up with overall research in education; who apply research findings in supervisory practices; who translate research findings for teachers and other administrators; who alert teachers of research studies that may be significant to them; and who are knowledgeable about the sources of research-based information.

Policy on instructional supervision. Instructional supervisors must base their supervisory practices on well-established policies and guidelines governing the practice of supervision and which specify the general methods, practices, and procedures of instructional supervision. Caldwell and Spinks (1988) defined a policy as a set of guidelines which provide a framework for action in achieving an intended purpose or purposes. The potential for achieving substantive success in the practice of instructional supervision will depend on the extent to which supervisory policies clearly delineate expected supervisory behaviors without being so rigid that it disallows local implementation flexibility. The policies must make sense in the context of other school policies that are in operation and must be practical in terms of implementability.

Resourcing. Effective supervisory programs do not just happen; they require the necessary resources. Drawing on the available resources for school improvement should be the instructional supervisor's major responsibility. Instructional supervisors must, therefore, endeavor to acquire the resources they need to carry out effective supervision of instruction. As Glickman et al. (2001) noted, a vital component of supervisory activity is providing, explaining, and demonstrating instructional resources and materials. Many teachers, they argued, would benefit greatly from supervision practices supported by adequate resources and materials.

Process

The process of instructional supervision may involve a variety of practices for collecting information about teachers, for example, the practices associated with developmental, clinical, self, and peer supervisions. These were covered earlier in this chapter.

Evaluation. Evaluation is a critical component in the process of internal instructional supervision and in the professional development of teachers. An effective evaluation system should contribute to the professional growth of the teachers of the various categories, including beginning, marginal, and experienced teachers.

Instructional supervisors should be regularly involved in evaluation efforts as they assess the success of supervision programs, processes, and teachers. As Wiles and Bondi (2000) concluded, evaluation is (a) the "bottom-line" activity in all school improvement initiatives (p. 173); (b) crucial to both school and classroom improvement efforts; (c) the basic means by which success can be measured; and (d) the moving force in educational improvement.

Instructional Supervisors

Successful instructional supervision and evaluation depends on the quality of what happens between teachers and instructional supervisors. The quality and quantity of supervisors' supervisory skills gained through professional training and experience, and the trust between supervisors and teachers are the two main determiners of success in supervision of instruction. Instructional supervisors must be trained and competent to conduct instructional supervision.

To help teachers to be at their professional best, instructional supervisors need to provide several forms of support: (a) facilitating classroom observations and teacher conferences based on observations; (b) recommending professional literature (e.g., journals) to teachers; (c) sharing articles with teachers; and (d) facilitating forums for sharing of professional development issues and concerns; (e) developing honest, caring, and tactful relationship with teachers; (f) encouraging teachers to reflect on their classroom events in relation to instructional and curricular decisions.

Outcomes

Instructional supervision must be seen as one part of a total school operation geared to producing certain outcomes. Supervisory endeavors, such as conducting classroom observation, selecting instructional resources and materials, and conducting in-house in-service training of teachers, may have direct impact on instruction, for example, by facilitating teaching effectiveness, improving teaching strategies, and enabling teachers to make superior instructional decisions. These impacts may, in turn, indirectly contribute toward increased student achievement, which, in fact, is the ultimate goal of any instructional supervisory program.

School Contexts

Instructional supervision must be conceptualized as a set of reasonably distinctive endeavors within the total context of the school functions. Because the school is the focal educational unit and quality teaching, school contexts are critical to the supervision function in improving teaching and learning and in maintaining effective instructional programs. It is at the school level that immediate results occur in terms of effective teaching, improved learning, and increased student achievement and positive attitude toward teaching and learning.

Instructional supervision practices are not employed in isolation; they are affected by other aspects of, or variables within, the organization in which they are set. The practices should be considered in the context of the total school organization. Such consideration may assist supervisors and teachers to assess whether a particular supervisory approach will suit their purpose, conceptions of education and organizational characteristics.

Cousins (1995) identified these organizational and individual factors and conditions that may determine the choice of supervisory practices and, consequently, the process of supervision or appraisal: (a) the supervisor (e.g., time available for supervision, training); (b) the teacher (e.g., desire for constructive feedback, growth, objectives, experience, knowledge of self); and (c) the organization (e.g., administrative support, policy history, culture). Also, West and Bollington (1990) identified additional organizational factors, such as objectives, values, developmental strategies, structure, human relations, learner characteristics, and material resources. The conceptual framework for examining the practice of instructional supervision presented portrays that a dual-directional relationship exists between and among organizational variables, suggesting that they cannot be treated as mutually exclusive in a program for the supervision of instruction.

The importance of organizational contexts in the practice of instructional supervision cannot be overemphasized. McKenna (1981), commenting about organizational characteristics and their influence on teacher evaluation, observed that

> unless all of these factors are considered as mediators in judging the performance of teachers, whatever judgments (favorable or unfavorable) are made may be attributed to teachers when the compelling forces underlying teacher performance reside in places quite apart from the transactions that take place between teacher and student. (p. 36)

However, based on Holloway's (1995) work, "the influence of organizational variables on supervision has rarely been investigated or discussed in the professional literature" (p. 98).

Ongoing Debate

Earlier research (e.g., McGreal, 1988) indicates that the more teachers and supervisors talk about teaching and learning the better they get at teaching quality. Talks, especially during pre- and post-conferences, for example in clinical and developmental supervision, as well as informal sharing of professional concerns, encourage this behavior. To facilitate effective teaching, teachers must engage in ongoing formal and informal conversations among themselves and between them and instructional supervisors.

In sum, the proposed instructional supervision framework would support the notion that supervision of instruction involves maintaining or changing school operations in ways that directly influence the teaching-learning processes employed to promote student achievement. The framework should be responsive to the contexts of the Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology's school inspection policy which puts a great deal of emphasis on the role of school-based instructional supervisors, especially headteachers (inspectors at the school site) in facilitating teaching and learning.

Summary

A review of the literature and research relevant to developing the conceptual background of the study was presented in this chapter. The main areas covered include instructional leadership, concepts of supervision, instructional supervisors, supervisory practices, foci of instructional supervision, models of instructional supervision, and staff development. A conceptual framework for examining the practice of instructional supervision was also presented.

The literature shows that instructional leadership is associated with numerous functions, such as monitoring teaching and learning, facilitating interaction between teachers and students, enhancing staff development of teachers, and ensuring conducive teaching-learning environment. The literature revealed considerable disagreement about the purposes of instructional supervision. However, the majority of writers agreed that instructional supervision improves teaching and learning, fosters teacher development, and provides instructional support to teachers.

The literature also showed that principals should be the instructional leaders of their schools and should be involved in a variety of functions relating to supervision of instruction. However, the research literature revealed that instructional supervision is not being carried out well or even at all by principals because of multiple problems that they face in schools. These include pressure from other administrative duties, teacher resistance to change, the lack of cooperation from teachers, the lack of teaching-learning facilities, and the lack of confidence in supervision exercise on the part of the headteachers themselves. Despite these problems, the research literature portrayed headteachers as the key element in the academic success of their schools. The literature further suggested that instructional supervisors such as principals should be equipped with the necessary skills to enable them to perform their supervisory role more effectively. These include interpersonal, communication, human relations, pedagogical, technical, and managerial skills.

The literature search clearly indicated that there is no single “right” practice of carrying out the functions of a supervisor, unless it is a combination of several practices. The practices that have received high priority are those relating to developmental, clinical self-assessment, and peer-supervision models. The literature indicated that instructional supervision may address numerous foci relevant to the teaching and learning process, such as students’ contributions in their learning, teaching portfolios, teachers’ knowledge of the subject content, instructional strategies, and classroom management. The literature clearly showed that instructional supervision is an important means of facilitating staff development for teachers. The research literature also showed that there is a need to enhance the professional development of teachers and school principals for the benefit of students, especially in the current era of reforms. The literature further suggested numerous strategies for facilitating staff development, such as the involvement of competent facilitators, the establishment of clear goals and objectives regarding staff development, and the provision of administrative support.

The literature search revealed that there is a paucity of information from reported research focusing specifically on instructional supervision in Kenyan secondary schools. Most of the local research has focused on general supervision. As a result, this study relied extensively on Western concepts to reframe the problem of the study, as well as to assist in the design of data collection and analysis procedures. The cultural and dependency of these Western concepts limits, to some extent, their "portability" and their usefulness for understanding instructional supervision practices and procedures in the Kenyan context. However, the study did use them as potentially useful guides to inquiry and analysis.

In Chapter 3, research methods and procedures are presented.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to examine the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools from the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior government education officers. This chapter describes the research design, the selection of a sample, the survey instruments, and the procedures used in the collection and analysis of data. The chapter consists of four major subsections: (a) population and sample, (b) research design and instrumentation, (c) data collection procedures, and (d) data analysis.

Population and Sample

The data collection for this study took place in Kenya between January and November 2000. The population for the study included secondary headteachers, secondary teachers, and senior government education officers. According to the Ministry of Education (1994), "all secondary schools which are developed, equipped, and provided with staff from public funds by government, parents, and communities are public schools" (p. 49). For admission purposes, these schools are further categorized into national, provincial, and district schools, depending on student enrollment and catchment area, and are widely distributed in the country. Among the three major categories of public secondary schools are boys boarding, girls boarding, boys day, girls day, mixed boarding, and day, and mixed day. The Internet website *Kenyaweb.com* indicated that there are about 2,300 public secondary schools in Kenya; consequently, there are about 2,300 headteachers heading these schools.

A sample of 200 public secondary schools was selected randomly to participate in the study. Random sampling was used with headteachers in an effort to provide a study group reflecting the opinions of the population from which they were drawn. As Fink and Kosecoff (1985) noted:

> The point is that the people who are selected are believed to be just like the people who are not. If you survey a probability sample, you will get an accurate view of the whole group, and in survey terms, your sample will be representative of the general population. (p. 54)

Each school received one headteacher survey and one teacher survey. The sample consisted of 136 teachers and 56 headteachers surveyed through questionnaires and 5 teachers, 5 headteachers, and 11 senior government education officers surveyed through interviews, for a total of 213 participants. The participants surveyed through questionnaires included teachers and headteachers employed by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) at the time of the study. Personal, in-depth interviews were conducted with three groups of professionals: (a) 5 teachers, (b) 5 headteachers/deputy headteachers, and (c) 11 senior government education officers. Therefore, the total number of interviewees in the study was 21. The interview participants were selected by convenience sampling in which, as explained by Merriam (1998), the researcher selects "a sample based on time, money, location, availability of sites or respondents, and so on" (p. 63). In addition, the selection of senior government education officers was based on following three criteria: (a) currently employed by the Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology; (b) willingness to participate in the study; and (c) at least four years of experience in the current or equivalent position.

Research Design and Instrumentation

A survey was used in the study to gather information from teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers regarding internal instructional supervision practices and procedures. The term *survey* "is used to describe research that involves administering questionnaires or interviews" (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003, p. 223). Survey research has been useful for gathering descriptive information relating to experiences, opinions, attitudes, behaviors, and for studying relationships (Fox & Tracy, 1986; Gall et al., 2003; Newman, 1994; Wiersma, 2000). The data collection for this study included a survey of opinions through mailed questionnaires and interviews. The strengths and weaknesses of these data collection methods were considered.

Questionnaires

For this study I developed two similar semi-structured questionnaires—"Questionnaire for Headteachers" and "Questionnaire for Teachers" (Appendices B and C)—based on the review of the literature on supervision and staff development (e.g., Beach & Reinhartz, 1989; Blasé & Blasé, 1998; Glickman et al., 1997; Goldhammer et al., 1993; Oliva, 1993; Oliva & Pawlas, 1997) and my expertise in and experience with supervision. I decided to use the questionnaire for three main reasons: (a) It enabled me to include a large number of subjects (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1990; Gall et al., 2003); (b) it guarantees confidentiality (Ary et al., 1990); and (c) it is efficient in that it requires less time and money to administer (Gall et al., 2003). Furthermore, I used both teacher and headteacher questionnaires to discover what practices of instructional supervision and staff development are actually like for teachers and headteachers and to determine whether or not teachers and headteachers report the same kind of information based on the same variables about instructional supervision and staff development.

The original draft of each questionnaire was a 10-page document consisting of 10 sections: (a) background data, (b) purposes of internal instructional supervision, (c) foci of internal instructional supervision, (d) practices of internal instructional supervision, (e) documents and guidelines, (f) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors, (g) types of instructional supervisors, (h) developmental activities for headteachers/teachers, (i) developmental activities for teachers, and (j) general questions.

Interviews

The techniques of in-depth interviewing were drawn from several sources (e.g., Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Burns, 1997; Gurr, 1996; Seidman, 1991). Patton (1990) identified four types of interviews: (a) the informal conversational interview, (b) the interview guide approach , (c) the standardized open-ended interview, and (d) the closed, fixed response interview. I selected the interview guide or interview protocol approach in which the topics to be discussed are outlined prior to the interview. The guide, though, (a) acts as a checklist, (b) permits complete flexibility regarding the wording of the interview questions during the interview, (c) provides the researcher with the opportunity to probe further or to ask for clarification of responses, (d) allows the data collection to be fairly systematic across responses to facilitate comparison, and (e) allows the tone of the interview to remain conversational and situational within a limited time frame.

Two similar semi-structured interview protocols for teachers and headteachers and for senior government education officers were developed. The questions were based on a review of the literature as well as on preliminary analysis of questionnaire data. The interview protocols consisted of open-ended questions to gather in-depth information from participants. The use of open-ended questions offers two main advantages: It allows a free response from respondents that is based on their own frame of reference (Ary et al., 1990), and it allows the respondents to say what they think and to do so with greater richness and spontaneity (Oppenheim, 1992).

Interviews were used to obtain in-depth perceptions about supervision and staff development for the following reasons:

1. They could be used with greater confidence (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).

2. They allow specific questions to be repeated or items that are unclear to be explained (Ary et al., 1990; Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).

3. They allow follow-up questions to be addressed for additional information on incomplete or not entirely relevant responses (Ary et al., 1990).

4. They allow in-depth follow-up of particular questions of interest or value (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).

5. They permit personal contact, which increases the likelihood that the individual respondent will participate and provide the desired information (Ary et al., 1990).

6. They produce rich data that reveal the respondents' perspectives (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992).

7. They enable respondents to reveal information that they would not otherwise reveal under any other circumstances (Gall et al., 2003).

8. They help to enhance, supplement, illustrate, and clarify results from the questionnaire (Greene & McClintock, 1985).

Also, as explained by Bogdan and Biklen (2003), "the interview is used to gather descriptive data in the subjects' own words so that the researcher can develop insights into how they interpret some piece of the world" (p. 95). Furthermore, inherent in the philosophy of one-to-one interviewing is the belief that an understanding is achieved when people are encouraged to describe their world in their own terms (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Additionally, interviews permit the researcher to collect considerable data quickly and to seek clarification or amplification immediately or later on.

Validity and Reliability of the Study

A good research study is one in which the instruments used for measuring the variables under study are valid and reliable. Validity and reliability are the factors on which good research relies. The work involved in determining these properties may be considerable, but must be undertaken.

Questionnaires

To ensure that the items of the questionnaires were relevant and clear and to enhance the internal reliability of the questionnaire, I did a pilot test with the purpose of improving the results of the main study by receiving important information on the following items: (a) checking the appropriateness of the developed measures, (b) preliminary testing of the research questions, (c) relevance of the survey to the subject of the study, (d) clarity of directions on the survey instruments (Wiersma, 2000), (e) visual appeal of the survey package (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003), and (f) appropriate length of time the survey will take to complete.

In this study I pilot-tested the instruments in two ways. First, I presented the survey instruments to a group of fellow students. Wiersma (2000) supported the involvement of graduate students in a pilot test: "A class of students, possibly graduate students, can often serve effectively as a pilot-run group" (pp. 171-172). Drafts of the questionnaires were examined by colleague students in the Department of Educational Policy Studies, University of Alberta, who were knowledgeable about the literature on instructional supervision and who had had direct experience in supervision. They were requested to review the instruments for clarity, bias, length, convenience in responding, and relevance of the questions to the phenomena under study. Colleague students were requested to give feedback regarding the appropriateness and relevance of specific questions in the various sections of the questionnaires. Respondents to the pilot test indicated that (a) the instruments were relevant to the study, (b) the design of the instruments was appropriate for the study I envisaged, and (c) the questions contained in the instruments were comprehensive enough to obtain adequate information regarding the variables under study. However, the pilot test participants expressed three major concerns regarding the instruments: (a) They were fairly long; consequently, they were likely to take a considerable amount of the participants' time to complete; (b) some questions were not worded clearly; and (c) there was a need to increase the Likert-scale from a 4-point to a 5-point scale.

Second, the questionnaires were further pilot-tested in eight public secondary schools in Kenya selected by convenience sampling based on my knowledge of their locations and my familiarity with their headteachers. Each headteacher and teacher in the selected schools received a copy of the instrument and was asked to review the instrument to check for ambiguity, comprehensiveness, and appropriateness to the Kenyan context, and to complete and to return it to me.

After the pilot test I reviewed the participants' concerns and recommendations and modified the instruments according to the suggestions received. Refinements to the instruments based on what I learned from the pilot experience included the following major changes: (a) rewording instructions and question items; (b) improving response keys; (c) simplifying some questions; (d) removing redundancy; however, in the main, these changes were semantic and did not involve overhauling the instruments; and (e) increasing the Likert scale from a 4-point scale to a 5-point scale.

The final draft of each instrument (Appendices B and C) was a nine-page questionnaire containing three types of items:

1. forced choice (e.g., "Please circle all the administrative responsibilities in education that you have held: (a) Diploma/S1, (b) Approved Graduate Teacher/A.T.S., (c) Bachelor of Education Degree, (d) Graduate Approved Teacher 1 (G.A.T.1), (e) Bachelor of Arts/Science, (f) Postgraduate Diploma in Education, (g) Others : Please specify);
2. short answer (e.g., "What are the two major advantages of present internal instructional supervision practice?"); and
3. Likert-type (e.g., "Listed below are documents that may influence internal instructional supervision practices in secondary schools. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate—by circling the appropriate number—the degree of influence which you believe the documents have on your role as a supervisee: (5) Great, (4) High, (3) Moderate, (2) Some, (1) No influence").

Each questionnaire consisted of 10 sections: (a) demographic data, (b) purposes of internal instructional supervision, (c) foci of Internal instructional supervision, (d) practices of internal instructional supervision, (e) documents and guidelines, (f) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors, (g) types of instructional supervisors, (h) developmental activities for headteachers and teachers, (i) developmental activities for teachers, and (j) general questions.

Interviews

To enhance the validity of the interviews, I used semi-structured interview protocols (Appendix D). As Best and Khan (1989) noted, "Validity is greater when the interview is based upon a carefully designed structure, thus ensuring that the significant information is elicited (content validity). The critical judgment of experts in the field of inquiry is helpful in selecting the essential questions" (p. 203). I pilot-tested the original drafts of the interview protocols with one former Kenyan public secondary teacher and one District Education Officer studying at the University of Alberta. Each of the respondents to the pilot test indicated that most of the interview questions were clear in terms of understanding and responses. However, the participants felt that the protocols were too long to be managed within the intended one hour for each interview and that some of the questions appeared irrelevant to the subject of the study. Feedback from the pilot test enabled me to adjust the interview protocols accordingly.

The final interview protocol frameworks reflected the following data collection foci: (a) the purposes of internal instructional supervision, (b) the role of headteachers as internal instructional supervisors, (c) the in-service preparation of headteachers relative to their instructional supervisory roles, (d) the barriers to staff development for teachers and headteachers, (e) the desired changes in internal instructional supervision practices and procedures and in staff development for teachers and headteachers, and (f) the use of information obtained from the instructional supervision process conducted by internal instructional supervisors, such as headteachers. Also, to facilitate the validity of the interviews, I endeavored to ask probing, expanding, and clarifying questions to solicit as much contextual information as possible from the interviewees and to build a good relationship with participants during face-to-face interviews.

To increase the credibility of qualitative data, I employed the following two strategies. First, I mailed interview transcripts to the participants to be sure that I recorded accurately what they actually said, a process known as "member check" (Bloor, 1997; Gall et al., 2003; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Guba & Lincoln, 1997; Langenbach et al., 1994; Maxwell, 1996). According to Gall et al. (2003), member check is "the process of having [participants] review statements made in the researcher's report for accuracy and completeness" (p. 575). The use of member checks with participants has the following six major advantages (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Maxwell, 1996): (a) It verifies the participants' perspectives; (b) it alerts the researcher of potential problematic areas from personal or political viewpoints; (c) it helps the researcher to develop new ideas and interpretations; (d) it may reveal factual errors that are easily corrected; and (e) it may provide participants with the opportunity to recall new facts or to have new perceptions of the situation; and (f) it is an important way of ruling out the possibility of misinterpretations of the meaning of what the participants say and the perspectives they have regarding what is going on.

And, second, I asked other people, including colleague students in the Department of educational Policy Studies, to assist with data analysis, for example, in reading my transcripts, in listening to my audiotapes, and in developing codes and to comment on emerging findings (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Guba & Lincoln, 1997; Maxwell, 1996; Merriam, 1998). According to Maxwell(1996), soliciting feedback from a variety of people is a useful strategy for identifying validity threats and the researcher's biases, assumptions, and flaws.

Data Collection Procedures

Before research data were collected, I applied for ethics approval from the University of Alberta and for a research permit from the Kenyan Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (Appendix F). Once the approval to conduct the research had been given, I sent letters to the headteachers and teachers of the schools in the sample and to senior government education officers, informing them about the dates that I intended to conduct the study and inviting them to participate. The description of data collection procedures is based on the instruments used; namely, questionnaires and interviews.

Questionnaire Data

The data collection by questionnaires followed a two-step procedure. Step 1 included mailing questionnaires, explanatory cover letters (Appendix G) and stamped, self-addressed envelopes to 200 headteachers and 200 teachers in Kenyan public secondary schools sampled randomly to seek their perceptions regarding internal instructional supervision and staff development. The participants were asked to respond to the questions and statements in the questionnaires and to return them in the self-addressed, stamped envelopes that were provided. An explanation regarding the study as well as directions for completing the questionnaires were provided. The explanation provided to the participants via introductory letters was intended to ascertain the level of accuracy of collecting data. Assurances were made that all surveyed information would be kept confidential. Also included was an advance “thank you” for the participants’ time and participation. The envelopes were marked to enable me to monitor the questionnaire returns, to identify those in the sample who had returned the questionnaires, and to avoid duplication in a follow-up mailing.

Step 2 involved sending follow-up questionnaires and appropriate cover letters with stamped, self-addressed envelopes to those teachers and headteachers who had not returned the original questionnaires (nonrespondents) within three weeks. These persons were identified in my records based on the questionnaires mailed earlier and those returned. Also, telephone follow-up calls were made to nonrespondents, especially in urban schools, regarding the questionnaires. Furthermore, I made efforts to visit schools within my research area to collect the questionnaires personally from the participants. As Wiersma (2000) noted, follow-ups are a must for almost all questionnaire surveys, and the follow-up mailing should be done a few days after the deadline specified in the cover letters for return. During the follow-up process, it became apparent to me that some teachers and headteachers, especially in urban schools, were unwilling to complete the questionnaires, despite several follow-ups by letters, phone calls, or personal visits to their schools.

For analysis, the questionnaires were grouped according to whether the respondents were teachers or headteachers. The responses were coded; then the resulting data were subjected to computer processing for statistical analysis of the results.

Interview Data

Once the potential interviewees were identified, I arranged to meet them to explain the purpose, mode, and process of the interview and to get their consent to be interviewed. Three headteachers and three teachers were interviewed during school hours, and two headteachers and two teachers were interviewed outside school hours in the evenings. Ten education officers were interviewed in their offices, and one education officer was interviewed outside office hours in the evening. I conducted the interviews on the dates and times mutually agreed upon with the potential interviewees. To get maximum cooperation and good responses from the interview participants, I (a) assured them of their confidentiality and anonymity, (b) explained to them the method of the interview, and (c) solicited their permission to tape the interviews by using an audiotape recorder.

I recorded the interviewees' responses with a cassette recorder for those who agreed. For those respondents who disallowed tape recording (i.e., two cases), their responses were handwritten. The taping of interviews increased the accuracy of the data collection and allowed me to be attentive to the interviewees. I also took brief notes during the interviews (a) to assist me in formulating later questions, (b) to facilitate later analysis of data, and (c) to help me pace the interviews. I pursued anticipated subjects of interest that emerged during the interviews at the end of the interview sessions.

I transcribed the interview tapes fully as soon as I returned from the field, coded the tapes, labeled the transcripts appropriately to ensure the participants' confidentiality, and sorted the transcripts according to the major groups of interviewees—teachers, headteachers, education officers. After transcribing the tapes, I erased them.

Therefore, triangulation (questionnaires and interviews) methods were employed to collect data to allow the researcher to be more confident in the results (Jick, 1979). It also adds breadth and depth to any investigation (Flick, 1992). Furthermore, according to Brewer and Hunter (1989), the use of a multi-methods approach reduces the research weaknesses and complements strengths. In addition, a combination of quantitative and qualitative data can provide more information regarding a phenomenon than either one of them alone (Langenbach, Vaughn, & Aagaard, 1994). Charles (1998) emphasized the value of qualitative research, in particular, in the statement that such research can yield information not readily available.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is "the process of systematically searching and arranging [data] . . . to enable you to come up with findings" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003, p. 147) and is "what researchers do to answer their particular research question (s)" (Langenbach et al., 1994, p. 237). "Which data to code, which to pull out, which patterns summarize a number of chunks, what the evolving story is, are all analytic choices" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 21). The information obtained from this study was analyzed in various ways using several different procedures.

Statistical Procedures

Descriptive statistics were used in this study to describe the raw data, based on semi-structured questions in the questionnaires. The percentages, relative frequencies, mean, ranks, and standard deviations were the main descriptive statistics used to explain the characteristics of the sample in the study and participants' responses regarding (a) purposes, foci, and practices of internal instructional supervision; (b) documents and guidelines; (c) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors; (d) personnel involved in instructional supervision; (e) degree of satisfaction with practices of instructional supervision; and (f) developmental activities of teachers. Frequencies were also used to analyze the participants' comments regarding the foci of internal instructional supervision, personnel involved in supervision of instruction, and professional development activities of teachers. Furthermore, Chi-square was used to analyze participants' perceptions regarding participation in staff development for teachers. Additionally, range was used to explain the background data of schools.

The descriptive statistics were treated in tabular form to show the responses of the participants to the questionnaire items as well as to the interview questions. Comparisons were made of the responses of headteachers and teachers of their perceptions of present and preferred internal instructional supervision practices and procedures in Kenya public secondary schools.

A major advantage of descriptive statistics is that they enable the researcher to use the mean and standard deviation to represent all the individual scores of participants in the sample (Babbie, 2002; Gall et al., 1996). Furthermore, inferential statistical treatment of data, especially the *t*-test, was done to determine whether there were any significant differences at the 0.05 and 0.001 levels of significance between teachers' and headteachers' perceptions of (a) the frequency of examination of existing and preferred foci of internal instructional supervision, (b) the existing and preferred practices of internal instructional supervision, (c) the existing and preferred importance given to aspects in *A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya* (*Heads' Manual*), and

(d) the existing and preferred extent of involvement of the various types of personnel in internal instructional supervision.

Missing Data

I searched the data to determine the extent and patterns of omissions. There were a few notable cases of missing data. For example, 49 teachers failed to address part one ('FOR HEADTEACHERS ONLY') of SECTION 2 in the Questionnaire For Teachers (see Appendix C). Similarly, 21 headteachers did not answer part three ('FOR TEACHERS ONLY') of SECTION 2 in the Questionnaire For Headteachers (see Appendix B). A speculation is that the instructions pertaining to these parts were unclear to the participants. Further to this, nine teachers and four headteachers did not address questions 1 to 5 in SECTION 10 (GENERAL QUESTIONS) in their respective questionnaires, seemingly due to time constraint. However, cases of missing data were excluded from the analysis of questionnaire data.

Content Analysis

In this study, data collected through qualitative interviews and responses from the open-ended sections of the questionnaires were analyzed for content. Cohen and Manion 1985; as cited in Harber, 1997) explained that content analysis "is a multipurpose research method developed specifically for investigating a broad spectrum of problems in which the content of communication serves as the basis of inference" (p. 120).

Data Coding

Through inductive analysis I searched for regularities and patterns, identified themes emerging from the data, and constructed coding categories, based on the purpose of the study and the research questions (Babbie, 2002; Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Miles &

Huberman, 1994). Coding involve assigning some sort of shorthand designation to various aspects of data so that specific pieces of data can be retrieved, and may include single words, letters, numbers, phrases, or combinations of these (Merriam, 1998). Concepts from the literature on supervision and staff development were used to organize the qualitative data and to compare responses from teachers, headteachers, and education officers. As Miles and Huberman (1994) noted, qualitative studies ultimately aim at a pattern of relationship that can be identified only with a set of conceptually specified analytic categories, and quantitative data have to be reduced to ideas, themes, or meanings that can be managed so that conclusions can be derived. According to them, the following tactics may be used to draw meanings that can help in drawing and verifying conclusions: (a) noting patterns, themes; (b) seeing plausibility; (c) clustering; (d) making metaphors; (e) counting; (f) making contrasts or comparing; (g) partitioning variables; (h) subsuming particulars into the general; (i) factoring; (j) noting relations between variables; (k) finding intervening variables; (l) building a logical chain of evidence; and (m) making conceptual or theoretical coherence.

Therefore, the major goal of my endeavor in organizing the qualitative data was to reduce the volume of the data without losing track of the essential characteristics and meanings contained (Smith & Glass, 1987). Appendix E, Table 3.9 summarizes the major coding categories generated to organize qualitative data in this study.

From the coding categories developed, I constructed summary tables and computed frequencies and percentages. Quotations from the participants were selected to capture the context in which they were used, to support conclusions, and to enable the readers to judge the transferability of the meaning and interpretation of the data.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the current state of internal instructional supervision practices and procedures and staff development in public secondary schools in Kenya from the perceptions of teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers. Specific research questions focused on the respondents' perceptions of and preferences for the foci and practices of internal instructional supervision, supervisory personnel, staff development programs relevant to instructional supervision, and desired changes for improvement supervision practices and staff development.

This chapter contains a description of the research design and procedures used in this study, a description of the population and sample, a description of the survey instruments, a review of validity and reliability of the instruments, a description of the data collection, and an explanation of the data treatment and analysis. Survey questionnaires and interviews were used to elicit responses on the perceptions of secondary teachers, secondary headteachers, and senior government education officers regarding internal instructional supervision practices and procedures as well as staff development. The questionnaires contained forced-choice, short-answer, and Likert-type questions and considered personal and school characteristics of teachers and headteachers that may influence the practices of supervision and staff development. Semi-structured interview protocols were used to obtain additional data from the participants.

After the pilot study was conducted and permission was granted from the relevant authorities in Kenya, the questionnaires were distributed by mail to a sample of 200 teachers and 200 headteachers in Kenyan public secondary schools sampled randomly. The final response rate for teachers was 68%, and that of headteachers was 28%.

Personal, in-depth interviews were conducted with 5 teachers, 5 headteachers, and 11 education officers, for a total of 21 interviewees.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data based on the semi-structured questions in the questionnaires, and the data obtained through the qualitative interviews and responses from the open-ended sections of the questionnaires were analyzed for content.

In Chapter 4, the findings of this study relative to the demographic characteristics of teachers and headteachers and an analysis of internal instructional supervision practices and procedures are provided.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION PRACTICES AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers', headteachers', and senior government education officers' perceptions regarding internal instructional supervision practices and procedures as well as staff development for teachers and headteachers. This chapter reports the findings derived from the analysis of the questionnaire and interview data regarding these perceptions in Kenyan public secondary schools. Demographic characteristics of teachers and headteachers and a discussion of the major findings are included.

To do this effectively, I have presented the findings in nine major component areas: (a) demographic characteristics of teachers and headteachers; (b) meaning of instructional supervision, (c) purposes of internal instructional supervision, (d) foci of internal instructional supervision, (e) practices of internal instructional supervision, (f) awareness of documents and guidelines, (g) skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors, (h) personnel involved in internal instructional supervision, and (i) the degree of satisfaction with internal instructional supervision. I have attempted to compare the findings from the questionnaire-based data with those from the interview data. All tables referred to in this chapter can be found in Appendix E.

Demographic Characteristics of Teachers and Headteachers

There were 136 teachers out of 200 teachers asked to participate in the study. The 136 responses represented a 68% return rate for teachers. Of the 200 headteachers surveyed, 56 returned their surveys, a 28% return rate for headteachers. To enable me to analyze and determine similarities and differences between the two groups of professionals studied, demographic information about teachers and headteachers in Kenyan public secondary schools was collected. A profile of teachers and headteachers was developed in terms of the following major aspects: (a) age, (b) sex, (c) professional/academic qualification, (d) administrative responsibilities in education, (e) length of service as teacher/headteacher, (f) length of service in present position in present school, (g) type of school where currently deployed, and (h) number of pupils and teachers in the current school. Demographic data were analyzed frequencies and percentages. The data are presented in detail in Appendix E (Tables 4.1 to 4.8).

Age

The frequency and percentage distributions of the respondents by age were determined. Ten percent of the teachers surveyed were under 30 years of age, about 74% were between 30 and 40 years of age, and only 2% were over 50 years of age (see Appendix E, Table 4.3). Furthermore, about 36% of the headteachers surveyed were between 30 and 40 years, 57% were between 41 and 50 years of age, and only 7 % were over 50 years of age (see Appendix E, Table 4.3).

Sex

Of the total number of participants surveyed through questionnaires (*n*=192), 65% were male and nearly 35% were female (see Appendix E, Table 4.4).

Professional/Academic Qualifications

The teachers and headteachers surveyed by questionnaire had either Diploma/S1 certificates or Bachelor of Education degrees/Approved Graduate Teacher Status as their highest professional qualification (see Appendix E, Table 4.5). Table 4.5 also shows that only about 4.2% of the questionnaire participants had qualifications such as Bachelor of Arts/Science or other qualifications.

Administrative Responsibilities

The data suggest that very few (1%) of the questionnaire participants had served either as District Education Officers or Inspectors of Schools (see Appendix E, Table 4.6). However, a substantial number of questionnaire participants (nearly 28%) had served in other administrative capacities, such as deputy headteachers, heads of departments, subject heads, and class teachers.

Length of Service in Present Position

The data related to length of service suggest very few (3.3%) of the questionnaire participants had served for less than 1 year in their present position, whereas substantial numbers of them had 5 to 6 years (16.7%), 9 to 10 years (19.4%), or over 10 years (36.6%) of experience in their present position (see Appendix E, Table 4.7).

Length of Service in Present Position in Present School

Data regarding teachers' and headteachers' length of service in present positions in present schools show that 11.5% of the questionnaire participants had been in their present position in their present school for less than 1 year, 41% of them had served for either 3 to 4 years or 5 to 6 years in their present position in their present school, and only 10.4% of them had worked for over 10 years in their present position in their present school at the time they responded to the questionnaires (see Appendix E, Table 4.8).

School Level Demographic Characteristics

School size

In this study school size was measured by the total number of full-time teachers deployed at each school and by the total number of pupils enrolled at each school. The mean number of teachers in the sampled schools 29.5 while the mean number of pupils in the schools sampled 461.3 (see Appendix E, Table 4.1). In all, a total of 100 schools were surveyed.

School type

The teachers and headteachers surveyed by questionnaire came from the three major categories of public secondary schools across the country—national, provincial and district—which included 19 subcategories (see Appendix E, Table 4.2). Sixty participants did not specify their school categories in the questionnaires.

Meaning of Instructional Supervision

One of the questions addressed in this study centered on respondents' views regarding the meaning of instructional supervision. This section presents the findings regarding the meaning of instructional supervision based on interviews with participants.

The analysis of the data obtained from interviews with teachers, headteachers/deputy headteachers, and education officers revealed mixed understandings of what instructional supervision entailed. According to the teachers interviewed, instructional supervision is a process by which headteachers and heads of departments facilitate teaching and learning in the schools by monitoring teachers' work. On the other hand, headteachers and education officers interviewed perceived instructional supervision as a process of ensuring that students are actually taught by their teachers as mandated by the school authority. Further to this, deputy headteachers regarded instructional supervision as a process of checking how instruction is conducted in the school.

The statements below typify respondents' views of instructional supervision. A teacher shared:

> It simply means devices put in place to enhance proper learning process and the monitoring process as I understand. Monitoring here would involve checks put by the headteacher to ensure that teachers carry on with their teaching-learning process. They give assignments to students; they test the students; they mark the same; and they release the results and maybe they end up carrying out certain duties which relate to their work, like supervising the games activities and the like.

Supporting the view shared above, a headteacher stated:

> Finding out generally what is taking place within the school in terms of the curriculum and extra-curriculum activities. For example, it is very important to know how the teachers attend their lessons, those that are not attending, or the general attendance of coming to school, and also to find out whether the students are being taught all the subjects.

Finally, a deputy headteacher saw instructional supervision as "the kind of supervision that is carried out by either the head of the institution or the deputy headteacher to check the way the teaching process goes on and the way day-to-day instructions are given"

Synthesis and Discussion of Meaning Instructional Supervision

The interview data revealed a considerable discrepancy among teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers regarding the meaning of instructional supervision. However, the three groups of professionals agreed that instructional supervision includes strategies put into place by the headteacher, deputy headteacher, or head of department to monitor the teaching and learning process in the school, and it is a way of checking other people's work to ensure that bureaucratic regulations and procedures are followed and that loyalty to the higher authorities is maintained. Such strategies may include ensuring that teachers carry out the following major activities: (a) attending scheduled lessons; (b) giving assignments and tests to students; (c) marking students' work and providing feedback; (d) assisting students with extracurricular activities; (e) preparing the necessary artifacts of teaching, such as schemes of work and lesson plans; and (f) implementing instructions from school administration.

Supervision as Inspection

In general, the participants seemed to equate instructional supervision with *inspection*, which involves overseeing, directing, controlling, reporting, commanding, and other activities that assess the extent to which particular objectives have been accomplished as required by the higher authority. Supervision as inspection seems to be associated with harsh, colonial overtones and a master-servant type of relationship. The ideas of instructional supervision as inspection are based on authority, compliance, and control, and especially the notion that there is wisdom in hierarchical positions. Partially as a result of the fact that Kenya's school inspection model has its historic roots in the colonial era, the years before 1963, when Kenya received her independence, the inspectoral view of supervision seems to overlook the professional interests and needs of the teaching personnel; consequently, it is likely to put teachers in the position of passively accepting directives of instructional supervisors. Further to this, the supervision process conducted as inspection may have several negative consequences: (a) It may not be effective in improving teaching and learning in educational institutions, (b) it may result in a lack of sufficient teacher support, (c) there is no guarantee that teachers will recognize and accept any shortcomings identified by internal supervisors, (d) there may be a lack of professional commitment on the part of teachers, (e) teachers are likely to be stressed by this mode of supervision, and (f) a harsh and unfriendly relationship is likely to develop between teachers and internal instructional supervisors, especially when teachers are not given a chance to disapprove inappropriate policies imposed on them by internal supervisors. Also, because of the varying interpretations of instructional supervision, there may be no uniformity regarding the practices of internal instructional supervision across the Kenyan public secondary system.

Therefore, it is probable that teachers, especially, might see instructional supervision as a strategy aimed at policing their work. Teachers' and headteachers' perception of instructional supervision is an important area because it is closely linked to students' academic performance. The success of the instructional supervision program depends on teachers' and supervisors' understanding of the meaning of supervision. Only then can these professionals have productive supervisory relations.

Purposes of Instructional Supervision

Another set of sub-problems of the study addressed the views of teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers on the purposes served by internal instructional supervision. This section presents the findings relating to the purposes of internal instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Ten statements describing the purposes of internal instructional supervision were included in each teacher and headteacher questionnaire instrument (Appendices B and C). The statements focused on the following major aspects relating to the purposes of instructional supervision: (a) assessment of teachers' instructional abilities; (b) making administrative decisions about teachers regarding promotion, demotion, and dismissal; (c) assessment of government policies; (d) collaborative decision making regarding the establishment of teaching objectives; (e) discussions about classroom teaching; (f) analysis and judgments regarding teaching; (f) collegial confrontation of instructional techniques; (g) identification of teaching and learning resources; (g) information about professional development opportunities; and (h) improvement of teaching effectiveness. For details regarding specific statements of purposes of instructional supervision, see Appendices B and C.

The respondents were requested to indicate their level of agreement with each statement by choosing from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A response of N/A (*not applicable*) was also provided. The respondents were also requested to indicate the level of importance attached to each purpose by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*no importance*) to 5 (*very great*). Included were two blank spaces where participants could add their own descriptors. The percentage and frequency distributions, mean scores, and standard deviations were computed for each of the purposes. The results are presented in this section in two parts, first for teachers and then for headteachers.

Teachers

The findings regarding teachers' views about the purposes of internal instructional supervision are reported in this section in terms of teachers' level of agreement with the purposes and the degree of importance they attached to the purposes of internal instructional supervision. To do this effectively, I have reported only the purposes with which the teachers either (a) strongly agreed or (b) disagreed or strongly disagreed. Similarly, I have included only the purposes that received the highest and lowest rankings in terms of level of agreement or degree of importance.

The data collected regarding teachers' perceptions of the purposes of internal instructional supervision shows that about 83% of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed that internal instructional supervision helped them to improve their teaching effectiveness, nearly 83% agreed or strongly agreed that instructional supervision gave headteachers and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives, almost 88% agreed or strongly agreed that internal instructional supervision gave teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching, nearly 84% agreed or strongly agreed that internal instructional supervision helped teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources, and approximately 88% agreed or strongly agreed that internal instructional supervision gave the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching (Appendix E, Table 4.10).

At the other extreme, just over 1% of the teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed that internal instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers, less than 1% strongly disagreed that internal instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding promotion, and less than 1% strongly disagreed that internal instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction were being realized. Interestingly, a large majority of teachers (just over 80%) had no idea about the purposes of internal instructional supervision, especially with respect to the headteacher's administrative decisions regarding promotion, demotion, or dismissal (Appendix E, Table 4.10).

Over 80% of the teachers agreed that great or very great importance was attached to giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to work together in establishing teaching objectives, about 71% believed that helping teachers improve their teaching effectiveness was of great or very great importance, and about 76% perceived that giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching was of great or very great importance in internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.11).

At the other end of the scale, nearly 4% of the teachers perceived that enabling the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized was either of some or of no importance in instructional supervision, about 3% reported that giving teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching was of some or no importance, and about 3% perceived that helping teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources was of some or no importance in internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.11).

A substantial number of teachers (about 80%) indicated that they thought enabling headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding (a) promotion, (b) demotion, and (c) dismissal was not applicable to internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.11).

A comparison between teachers' level of agreement with the purposes and degree of importance attached to the purposes of internal instructional supervision was conducted (Appendix E, Table 4.12). The purposes have been ranked from highest to lowest level of agreement with the purposes and degree of importance attached to the same purposes by the teachers. The following three purposes of internal instructional supervision were ranked first, second, and third, respectively, in terms of teachers' level of agreement: (a) giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to work together in establishing teaching objectives, (b) giving teachers opportunities to analyze and make judgments about their teaching, and (c) helping teachers improve their teaching effectiveness (Appendix E, Table 4.12). With respect to teachers' perceptions of the degree of importance scale, the following were ranked from most to least important: (a) giving the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives, (b) giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching, (c) giving teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching and (d) helping teachers improve their teaching effectiveness (Appendix E, Table 4.12). At the other extreme, based on the teachers' level of agreement, Table 4.12 indicates that the following purposes ranked lowest: (a) enabling the headteacher to make administrative decisions regarding teachers' promotion, demotion, dismissal; (b) enabling the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized, and (c) enlightening teachers about professional development opportunities. These three purposes also ranked lowest on the degree of importance scale.

Headteachers

The findings on the headteachers' perceptions of the purposes of internal instructional supervision are reported in this section in terms of their level of agreement with and the degree of importance they attach to the purposes. Also included are the purposes that received the highest and lowest rankings in terms of headteachers' level of agreement and degree of importance.

The data collected regarding headteachers' perceptions regarding the purposes of internal instructional supervision indicate that nearly 93% of the headteachers either agreed or strongly agreed that internal instructional supervision gave the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching, almost 93% either agreed or strongly agreed that instructional supervision gave the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives, and about 95% either agreed or strongly agreed that internal instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers (Appendix E, Table 4.13). About 2% of the headteachers disagreed that internal instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to make administrative decisions about teachers regarding promotion, and about 2% disagreed that internal instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction were being realized (Appendix E, Table 4.13). A substantial number of headteachers indicated enabling headteachers to make administrative decisions regarding teachers' promotion, demotion, and dismissal was not an appropriate purpose of internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.13).

The data were examined regarding headteachers' perceptions of the importance attached to the purposes of internal instructional supervision. About 86% of the headteachers indicated that great or very great importance was attached to the purpose of giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching, nearly 84% agreed that giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to work together in establishing teaching objectives was of great or very great importance, and about 88% believed that enabling the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers was of great or very great importance in internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.14).

Enabling the headteacher to make administrative decisions regarding teachers' demotion and dismissal was viewed by about 13% and nearly 18% of the headteachers, respectively, as having no importance in internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.14). Interestingly, for each of the purposes listed in the instrument, there were many headteachers who indicated N/A (*not applicable*).

Headteachers' perceptions of and importance attached to the purposes of internal instructional supervision have been ranked from highest to lowest, based on the headteachers' level of agreement with the purposes and degree of importance attached to the purposes (Appendix E, Table 4.15). Giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss ideas relating to classroom teaching, giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to work together in establishing teaching objectives, and enabling the headteachers to assess the instructional abilities of teachers were ranked first, second, and third, respectively, based on the headteachers' level of agreement (Appendix E, Table 4.15). These three purposes also received the highest ranking in terms of the degree of importance in internal instructional supervision as perceived by headteachers. Furthermore, three purposes received the lowest ranking in terms of both headteachers' level of agreement and their perceptions of the degree of importance: (a) providing teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques that need improvement, (b) enlightening teachers about professional development opportunities, and (c) enabling the headteacher to make administrative decisions regarding teachers' demotion and dismissal (Appendix E, Table 4.15).

Interview Findings

The analysis of the data obtained during interviews with teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers revealed three major themes relative to the purposes of internal instructional supervision: student performance, teacher appraisal, and curriculum implementation.

Student Performance

Many interview participants believed that internal instructional supervision was conducted for the purposes of facilitating student performance, especially in the national examinations. The following comment typifies the belief of one teacher regarding the purpose of instructional supervision with respect to student performance:

> For the proper good performance. The main reason why this administration is going on is, in most cases they target at the academic results. In summary, fostering high academic results to give good image of the school and to attract many students.

The academic success of students was commonly mentioned by a few participants as one of the major concerns of schooling that needed to be addressed through supervision of instruction. In general, the participants agreed that instructional supervision (a) contributed to academic excellence, especially in the national schools; (b) contributed to students' high academic achievement in the national examinations; and (c) improved students' academic results.

Teacher Performance

Six participants explained that instructional supervision was done to ensure that teachers performed their instructional duties as mandated by the higher authorities. As one teacher stated:

> The purpose is basically to see that we are working. The headteacher would do that supervision for the purposes of appraisal of staff performance because I am sure he has a duty to be writing reports, confidential reports about the performance of staff.

Several participants noted that internal instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, had the responsibility of ensuring that, through instructional supervision, teachers taught their lessons well.

Curriculum Implementation

A few participants agreed, in general, that instructional supervision was done in order to facilitate curriculum implementation in the schools. One teacher, in a general remark, commented that

> a school has its mission, may be as a center of learning. So the school has been given what to teach in learning-teaching process. The curriculum we follow is not ours. We have been given it by the Ministry of Education. Syllabuses are there which must be accomplished within a certain period of time. At the end of each period, the national exams are set to evaluate if that implementation of the syllabuses has been done correctly.

Many of the comments made in relation to curriculum implementation were prefaced with comments regarding subject and syllabus coverage and preparation for national examinations. However, there were some differences in the beliefs of three groups of professionals regarding what purposes internal instructional supervision served in the schools. Whereas a few teachers believed that instructional supervision was done for the purposes of appraising teachers, some headteachers and deputy headteachers felt that supervision was done to ensure quality education and to keep headteachers in touch with what took place in the school organization. On the other hand, a few education officers agreed that the major purpose of instructional supervision was to identify teachers' instructional strengths and weaknesses. As one education officer stated:

> I think the major purpose of this type of supervision is basically to find out about the strengths and weaknesses of teachers in the school. Where there are weaknesses, the teachers concerned can be advised to improve their performance accordingly.

It is clear that, whereas the findings from the questionnaire data suggested that, in the main, internal instructional supervision facilitated collaboration between the headteacher and teachers to address various professional concerns, information from the interview participants indicated that internal instructional supervision served four major purposes: (a) to ensure quality teaching, (b) to appraise teachers, (c) to enhance student performance, and (d) to facilitate curriculum implementation.

Synthesis and Discussion of the Purposes of Instructional Supervision

The findings relating to the purposes of internal instructional supervision based on the questionnaire data indicated that the majority of teachers and headteachers agreed that internal instructional supervision gave headteachers and teachers opportunities to work together in establishing teaching effectiveness and to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching. Further to this, the findings from the interview data revealed three purposes of internal instructional supervision: (a) to facilitate student performance, (b) to ensure that teachers perform their instructional duties as mandated by the higher authorities, and (c) to facilitate curriculum implementation.

It is noteworthy that both questionnaire and interview findings address four basic perspectives of instructional supervision: (a) quality control, (b) teacher development, (c) student development, and (d) curriculum development.

Quality Control

In the context of supervision, quality control includes ensuring educational standards by checking teachers' instructional work through formative evaluation. That supervision facilitates quality control is consistent with several reports in the literature. For example, Sergiovanni (2001), in describing supervision as a quality control process, explained that supervision may be conducted by a school principal to monitor teaching and learning in the school and to ensure that teachers meet acceptable level of performance. In Kenya, the headteacher, as the school's inspector number one, is expected to facilitate quality control in the school by ensuring that teachers perform their assigned duties effectively and efficiently.

Teacher Development

The concept of teacher development includes working with teachers to improve and to work on their practice with their students and to build a collaborative culture in the school in which teachers are encouraged and supported to lead and to learn from one another.

That supervision is geared toward teacher development has been supported by Robbins and Alvy (1995) and, more recently, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), who concurred that the key to successful supervision is the extent to which teachers are learning and the extent to which this learning influences their teaching practice positively so they become the best they can be and that supervision for teacher development should promote the learning and growth of teachers as persons and as professionals.

Student Development

The participants agreed that the practice of internal instructional supervision in the schools was student oriented. This finding supports the view held by Harris (1985) and, more recently, Kosmoski (1997) that the ultimate purpose of supervision is to improve teaching and thereby promote successful student learning. Similarly, this finding supports Sergiovanni and Starratt's (2002) belief that the purpose of supervision is to help increase teachers' instructional performance as well as instructional quality in ways that contribute more effectively to students' academic success.

Curriculum Development

The participants regarded curriculum development as an important concern in the instructional supervision programs in the schools. This finding supports the belief that instructional leadership in effective schools has a high priority in the areas of curriculum and instruction (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). Further to this, Olembo et al. (1992), in highlighting the curriculum-development perspective of instructional supervision, explained that supervision may be geared toward the development of new courses, the implementation of existing ones, and the improvement of the learning environment to suit the needs of teachers and pupils and to cater for the changing aspects of education.

In essence, these findings are also consistent with those of other studies cited earlier in the literature that indicate that instructional supervision facilitates teacher and student development, as well as curriculum instruction (e.g., Chapman & Burchfield, 1994; Hilo, 1987; Murangi, 1995).

Foci of Internal Instructional Supervision

A further sub-problem in the study was to explore participants' perceptions about the foci of internal instructional supervision. This section reports the findings regarding the foci of internal instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Twenty-two statements describing the foci of instructional supervision were listed in each questionnaire instrument (Appendices B and C). The statements addressed the following major aspects regarding instructional supervision foci: (a) organization of lessons, (b) subject matter, (c) pupils' academic development, (d) school curriculum, (e) lesson plan, (f) pupils' individual inquiry, (g) teaching guides, (h) course objectives, (i) teacher's personality, (j) pupils' character development, (k) pupils' progress records, (k) records of work covered, (l) teacher's dress and appearance, (m) pupils' sense of responsibility, (n) instructional course, (o) teacher's questioning style, (p) classroom management, (q) extracurricular activities, (r) pupils' performance in national examinations, (s) teacher self-evaluation, and (t) teacher-pupil relationship. For details about specific statements regarding supervision foci, see Appendixes B and C.

The respondents were requested to indicate their existing and preferred extent of examination of each aspect by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*never examined*) to 5 (*very frequently examined*). The percentage and frequency distributions as well as mean scores and standard deviations were determined for each of the foci. The results are presented in this section in two parts, first for teachers and then for headteachers.

Teachers

The findings on teachers' perceptions of the foci of internal instructional supervision are presented in this section in terms of existing and preferred frequency of examination of the foci. I have included only the foci that ranked highest and lowest in terms of frequency of examination as perceived by teachers.

Teachers' perceptions of the frequency of examination of existing and preferred foci of internal instructional supervision were explored (Appendix E, Table 4.16). The foci have been ranked from highest to lowest frequency of examination based on mean responses for existing and preferred foci of internal instructional supervision (see Table 7.17). The data collected suggest that availability of properly organized pupils' progress records ranked first in terms of existing frequency of examination, teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations ranked second, and availability of up-to-date weakly record of work covered ranked third (Appendix E, Table 4.17). At the other extreme, three foci ranked lowest in terms of existing frequency of examination: teacher's dress and appearance, teacher's use of teaching aids, and the manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class (Appendix E, Table 4.8).

In terms of preferred frequency of examination, the focus that ranked first was teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations, followed by availability of properly organized pupils' progress records, and, finally, availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered (Appendix E, Table 4.17). The foci that ranked lowest in terms of preferred frequency of examination included preparation of an appropriate lesson plan, the manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class, and teacher's dress and appearance (Appendix E, Table 4.17). Based on t-test analyses, there were significant differences at the 0.001 level between teachers' perceptions of the frequency of examination of existing and preferred foci of internal instructional supervision. In general, teachers preferred that the foci of internal instructional supervision presented in this study be examined more frequently than was currently being done.

Headteachers

In this section are the findings regarding headteachers' views about the foci of internal instructional supervision in terms of existing and preferred frequency of examination of the foci. To do this effectively, I have reported only the foci that were ranked highest and lowest by headteachers.

Headteachers' perceptions of the frequency of examination of existing and preferred foci of internal instructional supervision were explored (Appendix E, Table 4.18). A comparison between the existing and the preferred frequency of examination of foci of internal instructional supervision as perceived by headteachers was also explored (Appendix E, Table 4.19).

The foci are ranked from highest to lowest frequency of examination based on headteachers' mean responses for existing and preferred foci of instructional supervision. The availability of properly organized pupils' progress records ranked first, teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations ranked second, and the availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered ranked third in terms of existing frequency of examination (Appendix E, Table 4.19). At the other extreme end of the continuum, three foci ranked lowest relative to existing frequency of examination: (a) teacher's knowledge of the subject matter, (b) teacher's use of teaching aids, and (c) the manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class (Appendix E, Table 4.19).

Concerning the preferred frequency of examination the following foci ranked first, second, and third, respectively: (a) teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations, (b) availability of properly organized pupils' progress records, and (c) availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered (Appendix E, Table 4.19). The foci that ranked lowest in preferred frequency of examination included (a) teacher's knowledge of the subject matter, (b) teacher's participation in extracurricular activities, (c) teacher's dress and appearance, and (d) the manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class (Appendix E, Table 4.19).

Interview Findings

Interviews with teachers, headteachers, and education officers indicated five major themes relative to foci of internal instructional supervision: (a) curriculum and instruction, (b) student success, (c) teacher performance, (d) teachers' artifacts of teaching, and (e) human relations.

Curriculum and Instruction

Three headteachers cited three foci of instructional supervision that are primarily concerned with curriculum and instruction: (a) teacher's attendance to scheduled lessons, (b) teacher's participation in extracurricular activities, and (c) syllabus coverage by the teacher. One teacher, in a general remark, stated as follows:

> I think it is important to check on attendance of teachers to their scheduled lessons or to their participation in extracurricular activities with pupils. Headteachers should also make sure that teachers cover the syllabuses in good time to prepare students for external exams.

Student Success

Two teachers agreed that instructional supervisors should endeavor to find out how teachers assess their pupils' work. They argued that the various strategies that teachers use to assess students' progress will determine how students are prepared for national examinations. As one teacher remarked, "It would be helpful to know teachers assess their pupils' academic work because this is important for students' success in the national examinations."

Teacher Performance

Another area regarding the foci of internal instructional supervision cited by four interviewees was concerned with teacher performance in the classroom. These participants agreed that, to facilitate teaching and learning, the teachers' level of preparedness and general effectiveness in teaching should be the major foci of the supervision of instruction. As one education officer commented, "The best thing to do is for supervisors to address areas like effectiveness of their classroom teachers and how they are prepared to teach."

Teachers' Artifacts of Teaching

One headteacher observed that teachers' teaching artifacts, such as examination and test papers, should be addressed during supervision process. This headteacher remarked, "Instructional supervisors should check the quality of examination and test papers set by teachers because these are important teaching tools that would shape students' success in the final examinations. Do they set high quality papers which can promote learning?"

Human Relations

A final area relating to foci of instructional supervision mentioned by some interviewees was concerned with human relations. One education officer noted that how teachers interact with students should be considered in the practices of instructional supervision and that the teacher-pupil relationship should be a major focus of instructional supervision. Another education officer commented, "When you are supervising a teacher, for example in the classroom, you must look at how the teacher interacts with pupils. This interaction is important because it will affect learning."

In general, the foci of internal instructional supervision cited by interviewees concur with high-ranking foci relative to the existing and preferred extent of examination by the headteacher from the questionnaire data.

Synthesis and Discussion of Internal Instructional Supervision Foci

The findings relating to teachers' and headteachers' perceptions of existing and preferred frequency of examination of the foci of internal instructional supervision revealed by questionnaire data indicate that three foci received the highest ranking in both existing and preferred frequency of examination: (a) availability of properly organized pupils' progress records, (b) availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered, and (c) teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations. Similarly, one focus—the manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class—received the lowest ranking in both existing and preferred frequency of examination as perceived by teachers and headteachers.

The findings from the interview data revealed the following foci of internal instructional supervision: (a) teacher's attendance to scheduled classes, (b) teacher's presence in the school, (c) teacher's effectiveness in the classroom, (d) teacher's level of preparedness, (e) teacher's methods of assessment of pupils' academic progress, (f) quality of test papers set by the teacher, (g) syllabus coverage by the teacher, (h) teacher's participation in extracurricular activities, and (i) teacher-pupil relationship.

Indicators of Teacher Preparation

The three foci of internal instructional supervision that received the highest ranking in terms of existing and preferred frequency of examination by the headteacher—availability of properly organized pupils' records, availability of up-to-date records of work covered, and teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations—were particularly interesting because, in Kenya, the three foci are among the indicators of teachers' preparedness for effective teaching that the Ministry of Education expects headteachers to ensure. As explained by Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1998) and Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development (1998), headteachers, as managers of approved school curriculum, are expected to ensure that teachers prepare comprehensive tools of work, such as lesson plans and weekly records of work done, and check periodically pupils' exercise books, practical work, assignments, and continuous assessment to ensure regular marking and systematic use in guiding learners.

Teacher's Concern With Pupils' Performance

Teachers' concern with pupils' performance in national examinations is an important aspect of Kenya's 8-4-4 education system (8 years of primary, 4 years of secondary, and 4 years of university education), which seems to put a great deal of emphasis on passing of examinations. As Aduda (2000) noted, the overloaded 8-4-4 system of education imposes cut-throat competition among schools, where learners are pushed to cut down others in national examinations, and forces teachers to be busy all year round as they struggle to complete the curriculum. To facilitate students' success in national examinations, as noted by (Kyungu, 2000), teachers are expected to develop and transmit desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes to pupils, it is hoped, through instructional supervision.

Teacher's Attendance to Scheduled Classes

Teacher's attendance to scheduled lessons is an important focus in internal instructional supervision because it facilitates curriculum implementation. Highlighting the role of the school head as a manager of the school, Khaemba (1998) and Rinny Educational and Technical Publishing Services (2000) observed that the headteacher should ensure regular teaching of subjects to implement the school curriculum effectively.

Teacher attendance to scheduled lessons is a major issue in the Kenyan education system because numerous cases of student unrest in the recent past have been attributed to teachers' failure to attend scheduled lessons. For example, Ongiri and Too (2002), commenting about student protest in one school in Nandi District of Rift Valley Province of Kenya, cited "lessons missing" as one of the reasons for the student strike that paralyzed the school and led to its closure. Similarly, Mutua (2002), in reporting about a student strike in one school in Eastern Province of Kenya, cited teachers' boycott of scheduled classes as a major reason for the indefinite closure of the school and the temporary removal of students from the school.

Curriculum Implementation

Teacher's attendance to scheduled classes is linked to six other related foci of internal instructional supervision revealed by the interview data: (a) teacher's presence in the school, (b) teacher's effectiveness in the classroom, (c) teacher's level of preparedness, (d) teacher's methods of assessment of pupils' academic progress, (e) quality of test papers set by the teacher, and (f) syllabus coverage by the teacher, because they are all concerned with facilitating effective and quality curriculum implementation in the school. In the Kenyan context, as explained in the Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 1980), *curriculum* means "all the subjects taught and all the activities provided at school, and may include the time devoted to each subject and activity" (p. 4), and *syllabus* means "a concise statement of the contents of a course of instruction in a subject or subjects" (p. 5). To facilitate curriculum implementation, in particular, Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1998) has underscored the role of the headteacher in supervising the school curriculum to ensure effective teaching and learning. And Rono (2002) has concluded that the quality of curriculum implementation and management may determine student performance in external and school-based examinations.

Practices of Internal Instructional Supervision

A further sub-problem in the study was concerned with the perceptions of participants regarding the practices of internal instructional supervision. This section reports the findings relating to the practices of internal instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Sixteen statements describing the practices of internal instructional supervision as conducted by headteachers were listed in each teacher and headteacher questionnaire instrument (Appendices B and C). The statements covered the following major aspects relating to the practices of instructional supervision: (a) conducting teaching, (b) evaluating teachers' work, (c) providing information about supervisory process, (d) reducing teachers' anxieties regarding supervisory program, (e) collecting information about teachers, (f) pre-observation conferencing, (g) using examination results to indicate teacher performance, (h) interviewing students about teacher performance, (i) conferencing with teachers about classroom practice, (j) encouraging self-evaluation, (k) improving instructional quality, (l) writing supervisory reports, (m) providing supervisory feedback, (n) post-observation conferencing, (o) identifying areas of instructional improvement, and (p) rewarding deserving teachers. For details regarding specific statements about the practices of instructional supervision, see Appendices B and C.

The respondents were requested to indicate their preferences for existing and preferred importance given to each practice by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*no importance*) to 5 (*great*). The percentage and frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations were determined for each practice. The data obtained from teachers, headteachers, and education officers relative to the practices of internal instructional supervision are reported in Appendix E, Tables 4.20, 4.21, 4.22, 4.23, and 4.24. The results are given in this section, first for teachers and then for headteachers.

Teachers

This section reports the findings relating to teachers' perceptions regarding the practices of internal instructional supervision in terms of the importance they attach to the practices. Only the practices that received the highest and lowest rankings as perceived by teachers have been reported.

Teachers' responses relative to existing and preferred importance of practices of internal instructional supervision were explored, as were comparisons between the existing and the preferred means and standard deviations of the practices of internal instructional supervision as perceived by teachers (Appendix E, Tables 4.20 and 4.21). The practices have been ranked from highest to lowest based on the mean responses relating to existing and preferred practices (Appendix E, Table 4.21).

Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (i.e., self-evaluation; n=128) ranked first in order of importance as existing practice, followed by using examination/test results as indicators of teacher performance (n=127; see Appendix E, Table 4.21). Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted (n=128) and recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers (n=128) formed a cluster in third position in order of importance as existing practices. At the other end, the practices that received the lowest ranks as existing practices included (a) writing supervisory reports for different audiences (n=125), (b) conducting conferences soon after observing teachers (n=124), and (c) meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation (n=125; see Appendix E, Table 4.21).

Regarding preferred practices, recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers (n=128) ranked first in order of importance, encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (i.e., self-evaluation; n=128) ranked second, and providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process (n=128) ranked third (Appendix E, Table 4.21). The least preferred practices in order of importance were (a) meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation (n=125), (b) writing different supervisory reports for different audiences, and (c) obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interview (n=126; see Appendix E, Table 4.21).

Based on t-test analyses, there were significant differences at both the 0.05 and 0.001 levels between teachers' perceptions of existing and preferred practices of internal instructional supervision, except for one practice, holding face to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice. In general, teachers preferred that more importance be attached to practices of internal instructional supervision listed in the instrument than was currently the case.

Headteachers

The findings relating to headteachers' views about the practices of internal instructional supervision are presented in this section in terms of the importance that headteachers attached to the practices. I have included only the practices that received the highest and lowest rankings as perceived by headteachers.

Headteachers' perceptions relative to existing and preferred importance of practices of internal instructional supervision as well as comparisons between existing and preferred practices of internal instructional supervision as perceived by headteachers were also explored in this study (Appendix E, Tables 4.22 and 4.23, respectively). The practices were ranked in order of importance from highest to lowest based on the mean responses relative to existing and preferred practices (Appendix E, Tables 4.23).

Recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers (n=54) ranked first in terms of existing importance given to this practice, using examination/test results as an indicator of teacher performance ranked second, and taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality (n=54) ranked third in order of importance (Appendix E, Table 4.23).

The lowest rankings for existing practices were given to (a) obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews (n=54), (b) writing different supervisory reports for different audiences (n=53), and (c) conducting conferences soon after observing teachers (n=54; see Appendix E, Table 4.23).

Regarding preferred practices of internal instructional supervision, recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers (n=54) was ranked first by headteachers in order of importance, and taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality (n=54) and making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback (n=54) ranked second and third, respectively, as preferred practices (Appendix E, Table 4.23).

The three practices receiving the lowest ranking in order of importance as preferred practices were (a) writing different supervisory reports for different audiences (n=54), (b) meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation (n=54), and (c) obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews (Appendix E, Table 4.23).

Interview Findings

Teachers, headteachers, and education officers interviewed cited the following practices of internal instructional supervision that they had experienced: (a) checking teachers' professional tools of work or artifacts of teaching, such as schemes of work, records of work covered, lesson notes, lesson plans, lesson-focus books, mark books, daily preparation books, and part test papers; (b) examining students' exercise books; (c) using students to obtain information about teachers; (d) holding conferences with teachers; (e) observing teachers in their classrooms; and (f) supervision by walking around.

Frequency distributions of teachers, headteachers, and education officers regarding their mention of practices of internal instructional supervision were also synthesized from the interview data (Appendix E, Table 4.24). Eight teachers, nine headteachers/deputy headteachers, and seven education officers interviewed mentioned checking teacher's tools of work or artifacts of teaching, especially schemes of work and records of work covered, as an important practice of internal instructional supervision in the schools (Appendix E, Table 4.24).

Also, one teacher, six headteachers/deputy headteachers, and two education officers agreed that holding conferences with teachers was one of the practices of internal instructional supervision. Furthermore, two teachers, three headteachers/deputy headteachers, and two education officers identified observing teachers in their classrooms as one of the practices of internal instructional supervision.

However, a few teachers and headteachers interviewed reported that classroom observation, in particular, was not a common practice in their schools. As one headteacher commented:

> Visiting teachers in their classrooms to see how they teach is very difficult in our situation. And most teachers resent it so much, and personally I don't think I have done it. I don't think it is a practice. You know how it can be taken. In most cases, those who have attempted it have met with a lot of negativity. It is like you want to find faults from the teacher. Teachers fear it most.

Three teacher interviewees concurred that there were no supervisory reports on teachers written by headteachers, to the best of their knowledge. As one teacher remarked, "Once teachers have been supervised by the headteacher by whatever means, no supervisory reports are made, not at the school level. Maybe the headteacher would have his or her own reports."

The interviewees also gave least emphasis to practices such as examination of students' exercise books and using student leaders, commonly referred to as *prefects,* to obtain information about teachers. As one education officer stated, "But I don't think we need children to write anything about teachers for us to know whether or not teachers are on duty."

Synthesis and Discussion of Practices of Internal Instructional Supervision

The findings regarding the practices of internal instructional supervision based on the questionnaire data revealed that recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers was ranked highest by teachers and headteachers as existing and preferred supervisory practice, whereas writing different supervisory reports for different audiences received low ranking from these two groups of professionals as existing and preferred practice. The interview findings revealed six major practices of internal instructional supervision:

(a) checking teachers' artifacts of teaching, (b) examining students' exercise books, (c) using students to obtain information about teachers, (d) holding conferences with teachers, and (e) observing teachers in their classrooms.

Recognizing and Rewarding Deserving Teachers

That recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers ranked highest is noteworthy because it seems to be a viable strategy for motivating teachers, especially when the recognition is initiated by the headteacher as an instructional leader. This finding supports Sergiovanni's (2001) belief that one of the school principal's responsibilities is to build and to nurture motivation and commitment to teaching and that when teaching is rewarding professionally, teachers are likely to keep improving their effectiveness. The importance of recognizing and rewarding teachers has also been supported elsewhere. For example, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) observed that setting up a work structure that rewards and recognizes teachers for their efforts was an important part of the principal's role in creating a positive learning climate.

In the Kenyan context, as explained by Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1998), the headteacher's proper management, especially in recognizing excellent performance, may facilitate high morale, motivation, integrity, and appropriate work ethics.

Artifacts of Teaching

The practices of internal instructional supervision revealed by the interview data were also observed. For example, checking teacher's artifacts of teaching or tools of work is important in Kenyan schooling because it is concerned with teachers' preparedness to teach classes. Whereas the Ministry of Education (1987) expects classroom teachers to prepare artifacts of teaching, it is the responsibility of the headteacher and heads of departments, especially, to ensure that such items are actually prepared appropriately and to check their relevance to the intended subjects. Furthermore, as the Ministry of Education explained, heads of departments, in particular, are responsible for maintaining a record of work of the subjects to be completed weekly by all subject heads.

Questionnaire and Interview Findings Compared

A comparison of questionnaire and interview findings regarding the practices of internal instructional supervision revealed some interesting similarities. For example, the practice that ranked lowest in both existing and preferred extent of examination as perceived by teachers and headteachers—writing different supervisory reports for different audiences—was also viewed by some interviewees as being nonexistent

Also, the practice of obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews, which received relatively low ranking in both existing and preferred extent of examination as perceived by teachers and headteachers, was also considered inappropriate by some teachers and education officers interviewed. I can speculate that this practice was perhaps common especially in schools where feedback from students regarding teacher performance was productive. However, several views in the literature supported the involvement of students in evaluation of teachers. For example, Stronge and Ostrander (1997) argued that, because students are the primary consumers of teachers' services and have direct knowledge about classroom practices on a regular basis, they are in a key position to provide information about teacher effectiveness.

Whereas the questionnaire data indicated that meeting with teachers especially prior to classroom observation ranked lowest in order of importance as existing and preferred practice as perceived by teachers and also ranked lowest in order of importance as a preferred practice as perceived by headteachers, the interview data indicated that holding conferences with teachers was prevalent in schools. I can speculate that conferencing with teachers was not a popular practice in many schools.

Awareness of Documents and Guidelines

Another sub-problem I sought to address centred participants' views regarding documents and guidelines relevant to internal instructional supervision. The findings based on questionnaire and interview data regarding documents and guidelines are included in this section.

Questionnaire Findings

Nine types of documents influencing internal instructional supervision practices in public secondary schools were listed in each teacher and headteacher questionnaire instrument (Appendices B and C). The statements focused on documents and guidelines from the following places: (a) Teachers Service Commission (TSC), (b) Ministry of Education headquarters, (c) Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs), (d) District Education Officers (DEOs), (e) Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), (f) Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT), and (g) Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs). For specific statements about documents and guidelines, see Appendixes B and C.

The participants were requested to indicate the degree of influence of the documents on their internal instructional supervisory role by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*no influence*) to 5 (*great*). Included was a question concerning the following aspects of *A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya*, commonly known as *Heads' Manual* (see Appendix H): (a) schemes of work (i.e., overall planning of each subject throughout the term); (b) lesson notes (i.e., notes kept by teachers); (c) records of work done (i.e., teachers' weekly record of topics covered and students' activities); (d) pupils' exercise books (i.e., the actual workbooks of students); and (e) actual visit to the classrooms to see the work of individual teachers. These aspects in the *Heads' Manual* are examples of teaching artifacts that headteachers are expected to examine when checking teaching standards. The aspects have been listed in the *Heads' Manual* by the Kenya Ministry of Education to guide headteachers in their instructional supervisor role.

The participants were asked to indicate the degree of existing and preferred importance attached to each aspect by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*no importance*) to 5 (*great*). Percentage and frequency distributions, mean scores, and standard deviations were computed for each document and aspect in the *Heads' Manual*. The data obtained from teachers and headteachers about documents and guidelines relevant to internal instructional supervision are recorded in Appendix E, Tables 4.25, to 4.31. The results are presented in this section, first for teachers and then for headteachers.

Teachers

The findings relating to teachers' perceptions of the degree of influence of documents and guidelines on internal instructional supervision are reported in this section. Only the documents and guidelines that received the highest and lowest rankings in terms of degree of influence as perceived by teachers have been reported. Included in this section are the findings about teachers' views of the importance attached to aspects in the *Heads' Manual* in internal instructional supervision.

Teachers' perceptions about documents and guidelines that may influence internal instructional supervision were synthesized from the data collected in this study (Appendix E, Table 4.25). The documents are ranked from the highest to the lowest degree of influence based on teachers' mean responses. The TSC Code of Regulations was ranked first in order of influence in internal instructional supervision and was regarded by about 84% of the teachers as being of high or great influence in internal instructional supervision, policy memos from the Ministry of Education headquarters were ranked second and considered by 72% of the teachers as being of high or great influence, and policy memos from the Provincial Directors of Education were ranked third and considered by another 72% of the teachers as being of high or great influence in internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.25). Furthermore, the Kenya Union of Teachers (KNUT) documents, the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents, and documents from Teachers' Advisory Centres (TACs) received rankings of 7, 8, and 9, respectively, and were regarded by a substantial number of teachers as having some or no influence on internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.25).

Teachers' perceptions of existing and preferred importance given to aspects in the *Heads' Manual* and comparisons between the existing and the preferred importance given to the various aspects in the *Heads' Manual* as perceived by teachers were synthesized from the data (Appendix E, Table 4.26). The aspects (i.e., schemes of work, lesson notes, records of work done, pupils' exercise books, and actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers) in the manual have been ranked from highest to lowest degree of importance based on teachers' mean responses relative to existing and preferred importance attached to the aspects (Appendix E, Table 4.27). According to the data collected, schemes of work (aspect a) ranked first as both an existing and preferred aspect, records of work done (aspect c) was ranked second as an existing and preferred aspect, and lesson notes (aspect b) ranked third as an existing and preferred aspect (Appendix E, Table 4.27). Pupils' exercise books (aspect d) and actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers (aspect e) ranked fourth and fifth, respectively, as existing and preferred aspects (Appendix E, Table 4.27).

Based on t-test analyses, a significant difference at the 0.05 level was found between teachers' perceptions of existing and preferred importance given to schemes of work, and significant differences at the 0.001 level were noted between teachers' perceptions of existing and preferred importance attached to lesson notes, records of work done, and actual visit to the classrooms to see the work of individual teachers (Appendix E, Table 4.27). In general, teachers preferred that more importance be given to all the aspects in the *Heads' Manual* presented in this study—schemes of work, lesson notes, records of work done, pupils' exercise books, and actual visit to the classroom to see the work of teachers—in internal instructional supervision than was currently given.

Headteachers

Included in this section are the findings regarding headteachers' perceptions about documents and guidelines in terms of their degree of influence on internal instructional supervision. Only the documents and guidelines that were ranked highest and lowest by headteachers in terms of degree of influence have been presented. The findings relating to headteachers' perceptions of the importance given to aspects in the *Heads' Manual* in internal instructional supervision have also been included in this section.

Headteachers' perceptions regarding documents and guidelines that may influence internal instructional supervision were also explored (Appendix E, Table 4.28). The documents have been ranked from highest to lowest degree of influence based on headteachers' mean responses (Appendix E, Table 4.28). The TSC Code of Regulations ranked first in order of influence in internal instructional supervision and was considered by about 95% of the headteachers as having high or great influence in internal instructional supervision. The *Heads' Manual* ranked second and was considered by nearly 88% of the headteachers as having high or great influence on internal instructional supervision, and policy memos from the Provincial Director of Education ranked third and were regarded by about 79% of the headteachers as having high or great influence on internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.29). At the other extreme, three types of documents were ranked lowest in order of degree of influence in internal instructional supervision: (a) the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents, (b) the Kenya Union of Teachers (KNUT) documents, and (c) documents from Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs). A substantial number of headteachers viewed these low-ranked documents as having some or no influence in internal instructional supervision.

Headteachers' perceptions of existing and preferred importance given to the various aspects in the *Heads' Manual* and comparisons between existing and preferred importance given to aspects in the *Heads' Manual* as perceived by headteachers were synthesized from the data (Appendix E, Tables 4.29 and 4.30). The aspects in the manual have been ranked from highest to lowest degree of importance based on headteachers' mean responses (Appendix E, Table 4.30). Records of work done ranked first in order of importance as an existing aspect, schemes of work ranked second as an existing aspect, and lesson notes ranked third as an existing aspect (Appendix E, Table 4.30). These three aspects in the *Heads' Manual* also ranked highest in order of importance as preferred aspects (Appendix E, Table 4.30). The following aspects in the *Heads' Manual*—pupils' exercise books and actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers—ranked fourth and fifth, respectively, in order of importance as both existing and preferred aspects (Appendix E, Table 4.30).

Based on t-test analyses, significant differences at the 0.05 level were found between headteachers' perceptions of existing and preferred importance attached to schemes of work and pupils' exercise books, and significant differences at the 0.001 level were noted between headteachers' perceptions of existing and preferred importance given to lesson notes and actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers (Appendix E, Table 4.30). In general, headteachers agreed that more importance should be attached to schemes of work, pupils' exercise books, lesson notes, and actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers than was given presently.

Interview Findings

Interviews with teachers, headteachers, and education officers regarding documents and guidelines relevant to instructional supervision identified three types of documents: *Heads' Manual*, the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) Code of Regulations for Teachers, and the Education Act. It is interesting to note that two of the documents mentioned by interview participants—the *Heads' Manual* and the TSC Code of Regulations for Teachers—were also regarded by teachers and headteachers who were surveyed by questionnaires as having a great deal of influence in internal instructional supervision. The *Heads' Manual*, in particular, was regarded by the interviewees as a very important document in internal instructional supervision. However, some interview participants were not sure whether or not this manual was a legal government document that they were mandated by the Ministry of Education to use in the schools. Furthermore, these participants did not understand the relevance of the manual in internal instructional supervision. As one teacher stated:

> The heads manual is the main source of reference. But I don't know whether it is a legal document which has got a binding contract between the schools, institutions, and teachers. I don't know of any section focusing specifically on internal instructional supervision.

In general, the majority of interview participants appeared unaware of the existence of government documents relevant to internal instructional supervision. This is clearly evident in the following comments from a teacher and headteacher, respectively: "None. I have not come across them. If they are there, the head has not exposed them to us" and "No specific guidelines. But the use of syllabi that specify what should be taught termly in the various forms. No guidelines from the Ministry of Education about internal instructional supervision; the documents are scarce."

Synthesis and Discussion of Awareness of Documents and Guidelines

The findings from the questionnaire data regarding documents and guidelines revealed that the majority of teachers and headteachers, in general, viewed the TSC Code of Regulations and policy memos from the Provincial Directors of Education as having great or high influence in internal instructional supervision. Also, the questionnaire data indicated that the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents and documents from

Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs) had the least influence in internal instructional supervision:

The interview data revealed that three types of documents were important in internal instructional supervision in the schools: *Heads' Manual*, the TSC Code of Regulations for Teachers, and the Education Act. Further to this, the interview data indicated that Ministry of Education policy on instructional supervision did not exist, to the best of their knowledge, and that internal instructional supervision practices in secondary schools depended on the initiatives of individual headteachers.

Relevance of Documents to Instructional Supervision

Although the participants acknowledged the TSC Code of Regulations, the policy memos from the Provincial Directors of Education, and the *Heads' Manual* as being important in internal instructional supervision, a synthesis of these three documents indicated little relevance to supervision of instruction. For example, the TSC Code of Regulations deals mainly with employment of teachers, their terms of service, and their discipline and does not seem to have direct application to internal instructional supervision (Appendix H). Some policy memos from the Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs), especially those concerned with curriculum implementation and educational standards, may be relevant to the instructional supervisory roles of teachers and headteachers. However, memos from the PDE office would deal mainly with general educational concerns within the provinces (Appendix H). The utility of the *Heads' Manual* in instructional supervision seems to be limited because it is relatively general and merely highlights the roles of the various individuals in the schools.

That KESI and TAC documents had the least influence on instructional supervision was expected because both the KESI and TACs are concerned mainly with in-service teacher education and not directly with supervision of instruction per se. A speculation is that these institutions have not given much attention to internal instructional supervision and have tended to focus their in-service training programs on general administrative concerns. A second speculation is that TACs, in particular, have probably focused their in-service programs on primary schools and have had little to do with secondary schools.

Policy Guidelines on Instructional Supervision

The participants were concerned about the absence of policy guidelines on internal instructional supervision. This finding is contrary to that found by Scott (2001), who analyzed and compared the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers to determine the actual level of agreement between the practices for instructional supervision outlined in the school division's policy manual and the actual practice in the schools governed by those policies in an urban Canadian school system. The principals in Scott's study agreed that, based upon the policy of the school system, they had the opportunity to identify various options for instructional supervision, including formal in-class supervision (clinical) and collegial (peer) supervision. According to Scott, the key to effective instructional supervision from the point of view of both teachers and supervisors may be the clear articulation of the intended practices and procedures in a well-conceived policy.

Skills and Attributes of Internal Instructional Supervisors

Another sub-problem addressed in this study was concerned with the participants' perceptions regarding the skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors. *Skills* refer to special proficiencies or expertness that instructional leaders need to conduct instructional supervision, such as communication skills, observation skills, and problem-solving skills. On the other hand, *attributes* include qualities or characteristics that instructional leaders need to execute their instructional leadership roles effectively; for example, the ability to analyze teaching effectiveness, the ability to do long-term planning, and the ability to analyze complex problems. This section presents the findings regarding the skills and attributes of internal instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Fifteen statements describing the skills and attributes potentially needed by headteachers, as internal instructional supervisors, to perform instructional supervision were listed in each teacher and headteacher instrument. The statements addressed the following major skill and attribute areas: (a) problem solving, analysis, and anticipation; (b) communication; (c) classroom observation; (d) instructional evaluation; (e) interpersonal relations; (f) teaching-learning relationships; (g) teaching performance; (h) conferencing; (i) sensitivity to other people's concerns; and (j) planning and coordination. For details regarding specific statements about skills and attributes required by headteachers, see Appendices B and C.

The respondents were requested to indicate the level of importance attached to each skill or attribute by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*no* *importance*) to 5 (*great*). The respondents were also requested to indicate the level of need for further preparation relative to each skill or attribute by selecting from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*none*) to 5 (*great*). The data obtained from teachers and headteachers regarding their views about skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors are provided in Appendix E, Tables 4.31 to 4.34. The results are presented in this section in two parts, first for teachers and then for headteachers.

Teachers

In this section are included the findings regarding teachers' perceptions about the skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors in terms of the importance given to the skills and attributes and need for further preparation of the headteacher in skill and attribute areas. Only the skills and attributes that ranked highest in terms of degree of importance and level of need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers have been reported.

Descriptive statistics relative to teachers' perceptions of the importance attached to and the need for further preparation of the headteacher regarding the skills and attributes of instructional supervisors were determined from the data collected (Appendix E, Table 4.31). A comparison between the importance attached to and the need for further preparation regarding abilities of instructional supervisors as perceived by teachers was also explored (Appendix E, Table 4.32). The skills have been ranked from highest to lowest degree of importance and level of need for further preparation based on teachers' mean responses.

Teachers ranked the ability to communicate effectively most important, followed by the ability to bring people together to discuss issues, and then by instructional problem-solving skills (Appendix E, Table 4.32). At the other end of the continuum three skills were ranked lowest in order of importance by teachers: (a) skills in holding one-to-one conference, (b) skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction, and (c) skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom (Appendix E, Table 4.32).

Considering the need for further preparation of the headteacher for the instructional supervisory role, instructional problem-solving skills ranked first. The ability to communicate effectively and the ability to bring people together to discuss issues formed a cluster in second rank in terms of the need for further preparation, and the ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns ranked fourth (Appendix E, Table 4.32). At the extreme end the data in Table 4.32 indicate that three skills ranked lowest in terms of the need for further preparation: (a) skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction, (b) skills in holding one-to-one conference, and (c) skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom.

Headteachers

The findings regarding headteachers' perceptions of the skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors are reported in this section in terms of the importance attached to skills and attributes and the need for further preparation of the headteacher in skill and attribute areas. Only the skills and attributes that received the highest rankings in terms of degree of importance and level of need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by headteachers have been reported.

Headteachers' perceptions of the importance attached to and the need for further preparation regarding the skills and attributes of instructional supervisors were synthesized from the data (Appendix E, Table 4.33). A comparisons between the importance attached to and the need for further preparation regarding the skills and attributes of instructional supervisors as perceived by headteachers was also made from the data collected (Appendix E, Table 4.34). The skills and attributes were ranked from highest to lowest degree of importance and level of need for further preparation based on headteachers' mean responses (Appendix E, Table 4.34). The ability to communicate effectively ranked first in order of importance in the headteacher's supervisory role, the ability to develop interpersonal relations ranked second, and the ability to bring people together to discuss issues ranked third (Appendix E, Table 4.34). At the other end of the continuum three skills received the lowest ranking in terms of degree of importance: (a) skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom, (b) skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction, and (c) skills in holding one-to-one conference (Appendix E, Table 4.34).

Regarding the need for further preparation of the headteacher, instructional problem-solving skills ranked first, followed by skills in building upon strengths of staff members, and then by the ability to communicate effectively (Appendix E, Table 4.34). The following one attribute and two skills ranked lowest in terms of the need for further preparation of the headteacher: (a) ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring, (b) skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom, and (c) skills in holding one-to-one conference (Appendix E, Table 4.34).

Interview Findings

Interviews with the participants revealed numerous skills and attributes required of internal instructional supervisors, especially headteachers. The following skills and attributes were suggested by three education officers and two headteachers interviewed: (a) ability to lead by example, (b) high integrity, (c) knowledge about delegation and public relations, (d) supervisory skills, and (e) competence in teaching subjects. In addition, according to the beliefs held by two education officers and one teacher who were interviewed, headteachers as instructional supervisors should be qualified and experienced teachers.

Ability to Lead by Example

Four headteachers and three education officers suggested that instructional supervisors should have the ability to lead by example by doing what they are supposed to do; practicing what they preach; giving people clear guidance; modeling the same behaviors they would expect in teachers; ensuring that their followers understand what is expected of them; and providing useful feedback and follow-up support. As one headteacher recommended:

> It would be good if instructional supervisors are able to lead by portraying good examples, in teaching, general behavior, and discipline. They must set the best possible example to their students and staff.

One deputy headteacher, in a general remark, expressed the need for instructional supervisors to endeavor to model what they say in meetings with teachers and parents. Another education officer echoed:

> I think a head should convince himself that he knows what he is supposed to be doing and should show by example. Perhaps do as I say is not the issue; should be do as I do. Lead by example. Leading by example means that I must also be a teacher. I must be in the classroom. I must also produce results.

High Integrity

Several interview participants expressed the view that individuals serving as instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, should be of high integrity and the right people for the job. As one teacher commented:

> Those people appointed as internal supervisors of teaching and learning in our secondary schools must be of high integrity and high caliber, who understand the social context in which supervision takes place. Without such qualities, their supervisory roles would not be regarded as credible by teachers. We should be extremely be careful in identifying instructional supervisors.

Some of the comments made Some of the comments made by a few of the interview participants regarding this issue were appended with remarks, such as, "they should maintain their integrity," "let's have visionary leaders," "have leaders who value quality education," "they must be consistently trustworthy and credible as leaders," and "they should be people of integrity and sincerity."

Knowledge About Delegation

Another attribute of instructional supervisors that received a great deal of attention from five of the interviewees was concerned with knowledge about delegation of duties and responsibilities. Commenting on this attribute, one education officer suggested that, "For heads of schools to be effective internal instructional supervisors, they must be knowledgeable about delegation and public relations. Success of a school depends on teamwork involving sharing of duties, especially on areas of curriculum and instruction." One headteacher expressed a desire for instructional supervisors who have the ability to foster teamwork that builds strong relationships among staff members and a strong knowledge base in public relations. This headteacher stated, "Let us have instructional supervisors who can promote team spirit, a sense of cohesiveness, and collegiality among staff. In this way, people can share duties and responsibilities very well."

Supervisory Skills

Eleven interview participants especially expressed their desire to have instructional supervisors who possess appropriate supervisory skills. In recognition of centrality of school-based supervisors in facilitating teaching and learning, one teacher stated as follows:

> For these supervisors, particularly headteachers, to be effective in promoting teacher performance and student learning, they must be equipped with supervisory skills. Have supervisors who have acquired skills in supervision through in-service training to improve teaching standards in our schools.

Also, one education officer expressed the view that instructional supervisors who are skilled in supervision are likely to impact positively on teacher professional growth.

Competence in Teaching

Another attribute of internal instructional supervisors mentioned by some participants was concerned with competence in their teaching subjects. Four teachers and two education officers specifically suggested that those appointed as headteachers should be well-conversant with their subject areas to assist teachers effectively in those areas. An education officer stated:

> I think we need to have internal supervisors who know their teaching subjects thoroughly. They must also be competent and committed teachers in their respective areas of specialization so that they can offer meaningful advisory services, especially to new teachers.

One teacher spoke about the need to have supervisors who have a high level of expertise in subject matter and teaching strategies.

Qualification and Experience in Teaching

A final attribute of instructional supervisors proposed by some interviewees was concerned with qualification and teaching experience. Two education officers suggested that headteachers, as internal supervisors, should be qualified teachers with adequate classroom teaching experience to promote instructional awareness and prompt change in teachers. One education officer echoed:

> For successful supervision of teaching and learning, the head of the school should be teacher number one and be able to demonstrate that he has adequate experience in the teaching profession. If this is achieved, teachers are likely too feel comfortable inviting the headteacher into their lessons; they will accept his visits to their classes.

Further suggestions echoed by a few teachers centred on the need to regard qualification and teaching experience as the major criteria in recruiting new heads of schools.

Synthesis and Discussion of Skills and Attributes of Internal Instructional Supervisors

The findings regarding the skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors based on the questionnaire data revealed clearly that the attribute of the ability to communicate effectively received the highest ranking in terms of importance in headteacher's supervisory role and need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers and headteachers. On the contrary, two skills ranked lowest in terms of importance in the headteacher's supervisory role and the need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers and headteachers: skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom and skills in holding one-to-one conference.

The findings based on interview data indicated one skill and six attributes of internal instructional supervisors: (a) ability to lead by example, (b) high integrity, (c) knowledge about delegation, (d) knowledge about public relations, (e) supervisory skills, (f) competence in teaching, and (g) qualification and experience in teaching. A discussion of the skills and attributes identified in the study is included in this section.

Communication Skills

The headteacher's ability to communicate effectively, especially in developing the school as a learning community, has been well documented. For example, Speck (1999) stated that to communicate the school's vision toward becoming a learning community, the principal needs to acquire communication skills and that communicating the school's vision again and again is a key role of principals as leaders. This finding was also corroborated by views from other writers who saw effective communication as being inseparable from effective instructional leadership (e.g., Daresh & Playko, 1995; Smith & Andrews, 1989; Wiles & Bondi, 2000). Highlighting the importance of communication, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) recommended that school supervisors be able to communicate effectively with individuals and groups. In their view, the ability to project and to understand messages is a fundamental skill of administrators and supervisors.

In Kenya, as noted by Sogomo (2000) and Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1998), communication skills are essential to the headteacher's changing role, especially to convening and conducting regular staff meetings. In an apparent recognition of the centrality of communication in the headteacher's supervisory role, the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), established in Kenya mainly to provide induction courses in management skills to educational managers such as headteachers, has incorporated communication into its course content as a tool of management.

Skills in Observation and Conferencing

That skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom and skills in holding one-to-one conferences ranked lowest in terms of both importance and need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers and headteachers was noted. Teachers and headteachers did not seem to regard these two types of skills as being essential in internal instructional supervisors' leadership roles, especially in classroom observation and conferencing with teachers. These findings are contrary to the belief that supervision requires the supervisors to posses, among other skills and attributes, skills in observing and conferencing (Gupton, 2003; Hunter, 1984; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Wiles & Bondi, 2000). As Oliva and Pawlas noted, classroom observation, in particular, demands a high level of technical and analytical skills on the part of the supervisor to enable him or her to know what to look for, how to look, and how to collect, analyze, and interpret the data. The low need for further preparation of the headteacher in the areas of observation and conferencing skills contradicts the belief held by Hunter and, more recently, Oliva and Pawlas that, through pre-service and in-service training programs, supervisors should develop a grounding in conferencing and other skills essential to observing the teacher and students in action.

Ability to Lead by Example

The headteacher's attribute of the ability to lead by example revealed by interview data has been advocated by several writers. For example, Wiles and Bondi (2000) observed that instructional leaders must be excellent teachers in the classroom to be able to help novice teachers, to demonstrate new techniques to experienced teachers, or to go into classrooms to model teaching. In Kenya, the Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development (1998) recommended that, to improve and to maintain high educational standards in schools and to provide well-rounded, morally upright, and reasonable individuals, schools should have headteachers who are more than role models, who are capable of setting the tone and tempo in their schools, who should set good examples as teachers, and who should deliberately encourage their teachers to be committed workers. Also, Onyuka (2000) concurred with Mumo (2002) and Wafula (2001) and commented that, as professionals and flag-bearers of their schools, headteachers should be role models to pupils, to teachers, and to the entire society who lead by example, who are able to demonstrate to teachers what competent teaching entails by registering a sterling performance in national examinations, and who deliver in the classroom.

High Integrity

Having high integrity on the part of internal instructional supervisors as revealed by interview data means being honest, sincere, transparent, and accountable. In Kenya, headteachers, as instructional leaders, are encouraged to be transparent and accountable, especially in all cases related to financial management, administration, and transaction (Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development, 1998). Because the headteacher is the financial controller, the accounting officer of the school, and is responsible for all revenue and expenditure in the school (Ministry of Education, 1988), and to win and retain confidence of all the stakeholders in education (Onyuka, 2000), high integrity on the part of the headteacher is critical to the success of the headteacher's instructional leadership role, especially regarding the management of instructional resources.

Knowledge About Delegation and Public Relations

The knowledge of delegation on the part of instructional supervisors, such as headteachers, revealed by interview data is an important component of instructional leadership role of the headteachers because they are expected to appoint heads of departments and subject heads as well as delegate duties to other members of the teaching staff to ensure proper running of the school (Ministry of Education, 1987). Delegation by the headteachers involves dishing out to teachers, to pupils, and to support staff areas of duties and responsibilities to ensure maximum, desirable teaching and learning in the school (Lodiaga, 2000).

The knowledge about public relations cited by interview participants is important, especially for headteachers' roles in establishing, maintaining, and developing a cohesive working groups, both within and outside the schools, and as the chief actors in relations with the Boards of Governors (BOGs), Parents Teachers Associations (PTAs), the sponsors, and the Ministry of Education (Sogomo, 2000; Ministry of Education, 1987). As Sogomo noted, public and human relations skills are essential for the headteachers' roles as professional chief executives of their schools who are responsible for ensuring that the relations between their schools and external communities and all stakeholders in education are maintained on a continuous basis. This view would support the beliefs held by Ubben, Hughes, and Norris (2004) that the principals are in the best position to have a positive impact on the relationship between the schools and the external communities; that skilled principals have the potential to analyze the existing public relations programs and the communities they serve; and that the modifications in the public relations programs will be based on the principals' analyses.

Supervisory Skills

A major role of the Kenyan headteacher concerns supervision of teaching process and regular inspection of pupils' books and homework assignments. Toward this end, the headteacher requires an awareness of curriculum development. But, above all, supervisory skills would be critical to the headteacher's role in facilitating curriculum supervision and implementation in the school. In the Kenyan context, this role involves reviewing the following six ASPECTS of the curriculum (Isanda, 1999): (a) AIM (What are the school's overall aims for offering that particular curriculum?); (b) Structure (How does it look like? Is it useful in effective implementation of the/curriculum?); (c) Program (How is the curriculum programmed/timetabled?); (d) Evaluation (Are the end products of this curriculum desirable?); (e) Cost (What costs are involved" Are funds available?); and (f) Timing (At what stage should students select relevant subjects?).

Competence in Teaching

The finding relating to internal instructional supervisors' competence in teaching subjects was noteworthy. This finding supports the views of several Kenyan writers and scholars, especially with reference to the headteacher's competence in supervision of teaching and learning. For example, Khaemba (1998), commenting about the headteacher's involvement in teaching, observed that a headteacher is first and foremost a classroom teacher who should teach the subject he or she is trained to teach. According to Mutuku (1994), all headteachers are supposed to have teaching classes to ensure that they are in touch with their schools. Contributing to this point, Ochieng (1984) advocated that teachers aspiring for positions of headship should have been good classroom teachers and that the teaching experience should have been preferably gathered from more than one school.

Qualification and Experience

The finding relating to qualification and experience of internal instructional supervisors was noted. This finding concur with the views of several Kenyan writes and scholars who have been particularly concerned about administrative problems in Kenyan schools and the qualifications and experiences of the headteachers heading them. For example, Ochieng (1984), in highlighting the reasons why headteachers fail, blamed the failure of some beginning headteachers on the lack of vital experience and qualification. Similarly, Kamotho (2001), Omongo and Kamau (2001), and Nthiga (2001) cited poor or ineffective management of the schools as one of the major causes of protests and general indiscipline among students in schools. These observations underscore the importance of qualification and experience in the success of instructional supervisors' leadership role.

Questionnaire and Interview Findings Compared

The one area that questionnaire and interview participants agreed on in terms of skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors was concerned with ability to foster human relations. The importance of facilitating effective human relations is well-documented in the literature. For example, according to Robbins and Alvy (1995), displaying effective human relations is a key to leadership which forms a thread that runs throughout the organization and affects the culture, climate, personnel practices, and every individual who has contact with the organization. In their view, human relations skills include working with people, building trust, creating a climate for teachers to discuss their own classroom practices, and helping individuals reach their potential. Also, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) endorsed the need for instructional supervisors to acquire personal traits associated with human and interpersonal relations, like apathy, sincerity and warmth.

This finding supports the belief held by Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1998) that, to motivate staff and students, to facilitate effective participatory management, school/community relations, and harmonious co-existence, and to coordinate co-curricular activities, the headteacher require, among other abilities, knowledge about human and public relations. The knowledge of public relations would also enable the headteacher to facilitate and to encourage the establishment of the Parents Teachers Association, both with parents and with the local community (Ministry of Education, 1987).

Personnel Involved in Internal Instructional Supervision

A further subproblem addressed in this study was concerned with the participants' perceptions regarding the types of personnel who may be involved in internal instructional supervision. This section presents the findings about supervisory personnel based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

The following six types of personnel were listed in each teacher and headteacher questionnaire instrument (Appendices B and C): (a) headteacher, (b) deputy headteacher, (c) department heads, (d) subject heads, (e) colleagues, and (f) teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation).

The participants were requested to indicate their perceptions regarding the extent of involvement of each type of personnel in internal instructional supervision by checking off given alternatives ranging from 1 (*never involved*) to 5 (*always involved*). The opinions of teachers, headteachers, and education officers regarding personnel involved in internal instructional supervision are displayed in Appendix E, Tables 4.35 to 4.39. The results are presented in this section in two parts, first for teachers and then for headteachers.

Teachers

The findings regarding teachers' perceptions of the personnel involved in internal instructional supervision are reported in this section in terms of teachers' views about the extent of involvement of personnel in supervision of instruction. I have included both high-and low-ranking types of personnel in terms of their extent of involvement in internal instructional supervision as perceived by teachers.

Teachers' responses relating to the existing and the preferred extent of involvement of the various types of personnel in internal instructional supervision were determined from the data collected (Appendix E, Table 4.35). A comparison between the existing and the preferred extent of involvement of various types of personnel in internal instructional supervision as perceived by teachers was also made from the data

(Appendix E, Table 4.36). The various types of personnel have been ranked from the highest to the lowest extent of involvement based on teachers' mean responses.

The headteacher was ranked first in terms of the existing extent of involvement in instructional supervision, followed by deputy headteacher, and finally by teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation; see Table 4.36). The types of personnel who received the lowest rankings in terms of the existing extent of involvement in instructional supervision included subject heads and colleagues (Appendix E, Table 4.36).

Regarding the preferred extent of involvement of personnel in internal instructional supervision, the headteacher was ranked first, departmental heads were ranked second, and subject heads and teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation) were clustered in third position in terms of extent of involvement in instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.36). The deputy headteacher and colleagues were ranked lowest in terms of preferred extent of involvement, as Table 4.36 shows.

Based on t-test analysis, there was a significant difference between teachers' perceptions of the existing and preferred extent of involvement for all types of personnel listed in the instrument (e.g., headteacher, deputy headteacher, departmental head, colleagues, teachers themselves) at the 0.001 level (Appendix E, Table 4.36). In general, teachers expressed a greater need for the involvement of these various types of personnel listed in the instrument in internal instructional supervision than they were currently experiencing.

Headteachers

In this section are the findings relating to headteachers' perceptions of personnel involved in internal instructional supervision in terms of headteachers' views about the extent of involvement of personnel in internal instructional supervision. I have included the types of personnel who received the highest and lowest rankings in terms of the extent of involvement in instructional supervision as perceived by headteachers.

The existing and preferred extent of involvement of the various types of personnel in internal instructional supervision as perceived by headteachers was determined from the data collected (Appendix E, Table 4.37). A comparison between the existing and the preferred extent of involvement of the various types of personnel in internal instructional supervision as perceived by headteachers was also synthesized from the data (Appendix E, Table 4.38). The various types of personnel have been ranked from the highest to the lowest extent of involvement based on headteachers' mean responses (Appendix E, Table 4.38). The following three types of personnel were ranked first, second, and third, respectively, in terms of both existing and preferred extent of involvement in internal instructional supervision: (a) headteacher, (b) deputy headteacher, and (c) departmental head (Appendix E, Table 4.38). Subject heads and colleagues were ranked lowest in terms of the existing extent of involvement in instructional supervision, and colleagues and teachers themselves (self-evaluation) were ranked lowest in terms of the preferred extent of involvement in instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.38).

Based on t-test analyses, there was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between headteachers' perceptions regarding existing and preferred extent of involvement for headteacher and at the 0.001 level for all other types of personnel listed in the instrument (Appendix E, Table 4.38). In general, headteacher preferred that the headteacher, deputy headteachers, department heads, subject heads, colleagues, and teachers themselves be more involved in supervision of instruction more than ever before.

Interview Findings

Teachers, headteachers, and education officers interviewed cited the following types of personnel who they believed were involved in internal instructional supervision in Kenyan public secondary schools: (a) headteachers, (b) deputy headteachers, (c) heads of departments, (d) subject heads, (e) class teachers, and (f) peer teachers. Frequency distributions of teachers, headteachers/deputy headteachers, and education officers relative to their mention of the types of personnel involved in internal instructional supervision were synthesized from the interview data (Appendix E, Table 4.39). The majority of the interview participants named the headteachers and deputy headteachers as the primary individuals involved in internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.39).

The headteacher, in particular, was described variously by many interviewees as follows:

"inspector number one"
"internal inspector"
"immediate inspector"
"a very close inspector"
"immediate in-charge"
"first inspector"
"inspector on the ground"
"personnel officer"
"teacher number one"
"immediate person on the ground"

These descriptions suggest that the headteacher was particularly seen by the participants as the chief instructional leader of the school. A teacher commented as follows:

> It is the duty of the head to ensure that teachers attend classes, schemes of work are made, and CATs are set and administered. As first inspector, the headteacher, is also an overseer. The headteacher inspects things, to see that they are done well.

For other descriptors of the headteacher based on a review of the literature on Kenya see Appendix I.

Synthesis and Discussion of the Personnel Involved in Internal Instructional Supervision

The findings based on the questionnaire data indicate that two types of personnel ranked highest in terms of existing and preferred extent of involvement in internal instructional supervision as perceived by teachers and headteachers: headteacher and deputy headteacher. However, teachers and headteachers indicated low ranking in terms of existing extent of involvement in internal instructional supervision for subject heads and colleagues. The lowest ranked preferred personnel in instructional supervision as perceived by teachers and headteachers are teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation). In addition, teachers and headteachers, in general, preferred more involvement of all of the various types of personnel listed in the instrument—headteachers, deputy headteachers, department heads, subject heads, colleagues, and teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation)—in internal instructional supervision. The findings from the interview data indicated headteachers and deputy headteachers as the individuals who were mostly involved in supervision of instruction in the schools.

School-Based Instructional Supervision

That a variety of school-based supervisors, such as headteachers and departmental heads, are involved in internal instructional supervision concurs with several views in the literature. For example, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) observed that at school level, several types of supervisors may be involved in internal supervision: principals, assistant principals, curriculum coordinators, and department heads.

The School Principal

The one area in which the questionnaire and interview findings concur relates to the involvement of headteachers and deputy headteachers in internal instructional supervision. The involvement of school principals, in particular, in internal instructional supervision is consistent with the recent reports from the literature (e.g., Glickman et al., 2001; Herman, 1993; Musella & Leithwood, 1991; Njeri, 1984; Sergiovanni, 1995) that indicated that effective schools can result when principals take leadership roles in instruction; for example, by being involved actively in student achievement monitoring, curriculum planning, staff development, and instructional issues. These views also supported Sergiovanni's (2001) belief that the job of the school principal is being defined increasingly by matters of teaching and learning that involve selecting, helping, and evaluating teachers, and working with teachers to improve instruction.

Teacher Colleagues

Interestingly, the relatively low-ranked type of personnel in terms of existing and preferred extent of involvement in internal instructional supervision as perceived by teachers and headteachers, namely, colleagues, was also least mentioned by interview participants. In contrast to this finding, and as typically shown in the literature, supervision by colleagues (peer supervision) is regarded as an important component of professional development of teachers. For example, Calabrese and Zepeda (1997) noted that peer supervision is based on the belief that teachers, as professionals, have a great deal to offer to one another and that this supervisory approach facilitates teachers' professional growth as active participants, contributes to teacher responsibility for self and profession, and promotes collaboration, feedback, guidance, and perspective.

Degree of Satisfaction With Internal Instructional Supervision

Another subproblem the study addressed was teachers' and headteachers' perceptions regarding their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of internal instructional supervision practices in their schools. In this section are reported the findings relating to teachers' and headteachers' degree of satisfaction with practices of internal instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Ten aspects of instructional supervision practices were listed in each teacher and headteacher questionnaire instrument. The aspects focused on the following major areas relating to supervisory practices: (a) quality of administrative support, (b) administrative support to supervision program, (c) peer supervision, (d) headteachers' supervisory strategies, (e) collection of supervisory information, (f) availability and adequacy of support documents, and (g) existence and adequacy of staff development programs. For details regarding specific statements relating to supervision practices listed in the questionnaire, see Appendices B and C.

The participants were requested to indicate their degree of satisfaction with practices by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*highly dissatisfied*) to 5 (*highly satisfied*). The data obtained from teachers and headteachers regarding their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of internal instructional supervision in their schools are shown in Appendix E, Tables 4.40 and 4.41. The results are presented in this section in two parts, first for teachers and them for headteachers.

Teachers

The findings regarding teachers' opinions about their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of practices of internal instructional supervision are presented in this section. To do this effectively, I have included only the aspects of instructional supervision with which teachers were somewhat/ highly satisfied or dissatisfied.

Frequencies and percentage distributions, as well as mean scores and standard deviations of teachers regarding their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of internal instructional supervision in their schools were determined from the data (Appendix E, Table 4.40). About 63% of the teachers indicated that they were either somewhat satisfied or highly satisfied with the administrative support to internal instructional supervision, about 63% indicated that they were either somewhat satisfied or highly satisfied with the overall quality of internal instructional supervision, and almost 52% indicated that they were either somewhat satisfied or highly satisfied with the general organization of internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.40).

At the other extreme, 28% of the teachers indicated that they were either somewhat dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied with the extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work, about 30% indicated that they were dissatisfied with the adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor, and about 35% indicated that they were either somewhat dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied with the existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor (Appendix E, Table 4.41).

Headteachers

The findings relating to headteachers' perceptions of their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of internal instructional supervision practices are given in this section. I have included only the aspects with which headteachers were somewhat/highly satisfied or dissatisfied.

Headteachers' degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of internal instructional supervision practices were determined from the data (Appendix E, Table 4.40). About 86% of the headteachers were either somewhat satisfied or highly satisfied with the administrative support to internal instructional supervision program, about 82% were somewhat satisfied or highly satisfied with the extent to which the headteacher is objective in collecting supervisory information on teacher, and nearly 87% were somewhat or highly satisfied with the overall quality of internal instructional supervision (Appendix E, Table 4.41).

On the contrary, 32% of the headteachers were either somewhat dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied with the adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor, about 30% were either somewhat or highly dissatisfied with the extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work, and almost 32% were either somewhat or highly dissatisfied with the existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor (Appendix E, Table 4.41).

Interview Findings

Interviews with teachers, headteachers, and education officers yielded information that pertains to their satisfaction with the diverse areas regarding the practices of internal instructional supervision they experiences in the schools. The following four distinct themes relative to interviewees' satisfaction with aspects of practices of internal instructional supervision practices emerged: (a) reciprocal exchange of instructional information among peer teachers (b) timetabling, (c) departmental staff meetings; (d) teacher instructional responsibilities.

Reciprocal Exchange of Instructional Information

Three teacher interviewees concurred that they were generally satisfied with the extent to which colleague teachers exchanged instructional information among themselves in their schools. As one teacher echoed:

> We share many interesting discussions with colleague teachers internally in and outside the staffroom. This is a common practice in our school through which we share our instructional concerns and issues and learn from each other's insights and expertise to improve our teaching. Many teachers are generally happy with this mode of interaction.

Timetabling

One area in which interviewees expressed satisfaction was concerned with developing teaching timetables to allocate workload. One teacher interviewee observed that the manner in which the headteacher involved the timetable committee, consisting of experienced teachers, in developing the teaching timetable was particularly rewarding: "I like the way our headteacher involves some of us in developing a teaching timetable for the school. The timetable committee consults with us before coming up with the final timetable." The great majority of teacher interviewees felt that their headteachers did delegate this important duty to them along with the necessary freedom in which to plan and organize the teaching timetable.

Departmental Staff Meetings

Four teacher interviewees expressed their satisfaction with the manner in which headteachers encouraged heads of the various departments in their schools to schedule frequent departmental meetings to address instructional concerns in their respective departments. One teacher, in a general remark, stated that:

> Our headteacher normally encourages heads of departments to try to organize frequent meetings with teachers to debate on the teaching and learning progress and problems in their departments. This is interesting to me because during such meetings, we are able to identify, resolve, and redesign our teaching and learning strategies to maximize student achievement in the national exams.

Teachers' Instructional Responsibilities

A final area in which four interviewees expressed satisfaction was concerned with the manner in which headteachers encouraged their teachers to assume full responsibilities for carrying out their instructional work. One teacher revealed that their headteacher accomplished this move through general staff meetings as well as written memos. There was a general consensus among the interviewees that this instructional leadership activity was valuable and rewarding. One teacher remarked, "I like the way our headteacher encourages us to carry out instructional duties effectively during staff meetings. Such encouragement is very valuable to me as a professional, and generally teachers are positive about it."

Synthesis and Discussion of Degree of Satisfaction of Satisfaction With Internal Instructional Supervision

The questionnaire data revealed that the majority of teachers and headteachers were somewhat or highly satisfied with two aspects of internal instructional supervision: the overall quality of internal instructional supervision and administrative support for the internal instructional supervision program. On the other hand, many teachers and headteachers were somewhat or highly dissatisfied with three aspects of internal instructional supervision in their schools: the extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work, the existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor, and the adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor.

The findings based on the interview data revealed that the participants were satisfied with the following aspects of internal instructional supervision in the schools: (a) the presence of reciprocal exchange of instructional information among peer teachers; (b) the manner in which teaching timetables were developed; (c) the scheduling of departmental staff meetings to address instructional concerns; and (d) the manner in which headteachers encouraged teachers to carry out their instructional responsibilities.

Quality of Instructional Supervision

That teachers and headteachers were satisfied with the overall quality of instructional supervision in the schools was noted. According to Hoy, Bayne-Jardine, and Wood (2000), quality in education comes from making things happen and should be evaluated in terms of its contribution to the outcomes. An overall quality of supervision in the context of this finding would imply that (a) the practices of supervision were consistent with and integrated into the organizational context of the schools, considering school values, and the motto; (b) teachers and headteachers worked as true professionals in a climate of respect and trust to facilitate student achievement; (c) teacher evaluations were integrated with staff development and were used productively to support school improvement initiatives for the benefit of students; and (d) the necessary instructional materials and equipment were availed to support supervision practices. These implications support Sergiovanni's (1988) belief that schools exist for two main reasons: to foster student learning and to provide meaningful professional growth among teachers.

Peer Supervision

That teachers and headteachers were generally dissatisfied with the extent to which peers supervised each other's instructional work was noted. This finding is contrary to the belief held by Glickman et al. (2001) that teachers naturally turn to each other for help more often than to supervisors and that "teachers helping teachers has become a formalized and well-received way of assuring direct assistance to every staff member" (p. 322). This finding also contradicts findings by Scott (2001) that indicate that collegial supervision was the method of choice for most teachers. A speculation is that, in Kenya, peer supervision has not been emphasized in the schools and, as a result, teachers have no idea what this mode of supervision entails and how it works.

Staff Development Programs

Teachers and headteachers seemed generally dissatisfied with the existence and adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor. This finding suggests that there was no link between instructional supervision and staff development in the schools. However, this finding is contrary to the beliefs held by several writers in the literature regarding the connection between supervision and staff development (e.g., Wanzare & da Costa, 2000) that staff development is a prerequisite to effective supervision and may be used to prepare teachers and supervisors to participate in supervision programs by enlightening them about supervisory skills and practices.

Reciprocal Exchange of Instructional Information

The importance of exchanging vital professional information among colleague teachers cannot be overemphasized. For example, Rosenholtz (1991) observed that comments of colleague teachers may assist each other in realizing their instructional improvement needs, in eliciting innovative responses, in problem-solving and in creativity, and that colleagues are important sources of professional renewal. Similarly, Robbins and Alvy (2003) observed that collegial, professionally-focused interactions are those associated with (a) sharing of successful professional practices; (b) curriculum articulation; (c) specific instructional strategies that foster student achievement, teaching, and student assessment practices; and (d) conversations about student work and research projects. They concluded that in schools which have actualized true collegial cultures, professional dialogues have become a way of addressing teachers' professional growth goals and endeavors. Furthermore, in concurring with these views, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) observed that collegial interactions provide settings in which teachers can informally discuss problems they face, share ideas, help one another in preparing lessons, exchange tips, and provide other support to one another. And, Little and Bird (1987), in agreement with these views, noted that collegial work, especially among teachers (a) offers an expanded pool of ideas and materials; (b) enhances capacity building for handling complex problems; and (c) offers opportunities for intellectual stimulation or emotional solidarity.

Timetabling

The findings from the interview data about the participants' degree of satisfaction with practices of internal instructional supervision were noted. The general satisfaction with the involvement of teachers in developing timetables in schools indicates the awareness of headteachers of the crucial role of delegation in instructional leadership. This finding supports the belief held by the Ministry of Education (1987) and, more recently, the Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1998) that headteachers are expected to delegate duties and responsibilities to other members of staff, including teachers, to ensure the proper running of the school. Collaborative timetabling is important in ensuring that the various teaching subjects are distributed equitably in the school timetables and that the subject teachers are deployed in the most suitable way.

Departmental Staff Meetings

The importance of departmental meetings in instructional improvement in the schools has been well-documented. For example, Robbins and Alvy (2003) asserted that departmental meetings, especially in schools enable small groups of professionals to get together to (a) review and to refine the curriculum implementation and teaching strategies; (b) share instructional expectations; (c) develop common themes, concepts, and essential questions in dealing with the various subject disciplines; and (d) plan projects and team teaching. According to Ministry of Education (1987), the responsibility for organizing and holding regular staff meetings, especially in Kenyan secondary schools, lies squarely with heads of departments. In this capacity, and through regular meetings, departmental heads are also responsible for (a) facilitating the preparation of teachers' tools of work, such as schemes of work, in all classes; (b) organizing the various subjects in the school; (c) promoting efficiency in the teaching-learning process; and (d) coordinating instructional strategies (Rinny Educational and Technical Publishing Services, 2000).

Teachers' Instructional Responsibilities

The participants concurred that headteachers were concerned about teachers' instructional responsibilities that promoted student academic achievement. Congruent with this finding is the view held by Peterson (1987; as cited in Hughes, 1994) and Gullatt and Lofton (1996) that principals should recognize teachers as true professionals responsible for student learning and that ensuring instructional quality is a shared responsibility between teachers and principals. In a study of selected teachers from public elementary, middle level, and high schools in Southeastern, Midwestern, and Northeastern United States regarding their perceptions of principals' instructional leadership, Blasé and Blasé (1999a) reported that effective principals who want to promote classroom instruction talk openly and freely with teachers about teaching and learning in the belief that teachers are thoughtful, responsible, and growing professionals. This finding implies that student success is an equal responsibility shared between headteachers and teachers and that each of these groups of professionals should be committed to facilitating this success.

Summary

In this chapter, I presented the findings of the study based on analysis of the data relating to demographic characteristics of teachers and headteachers and internal instructional supervision practices and procedures. The findings from the demographic data showed that 10% of the teachers surveyed were under 30 years of age, about 74% were between 30 and 40 years of age, and only 2% of the teachers were over 50 years of age. About 36% of the headteachers surveyed were between 30 and 40 years, 57% were between 41 and 50 years of age, and only 7% were over 50 years of age. Sixty-five percent of the participants surveyed through questionnaires were male, and nearly 35% were female. The majority of the teachers and headteachers surveyed by questionnaire had either Diploma/S1 certificates or Bachelor of Education degrees/Approved Graduate Teacher Status as their highest professional qualification. Very few (1%) of the questionnaire participants had served either as District Education Officers or Inspectors of Schools, whereas nearly 28% of them had served in other administrative capacities, such as deputy headteachers, heads of departments, subject heads, and class teachers. Very few (3.3%) of the questionnaire participants had served for less than 1 year in their present position, but substantial numbers of them had 5 to 6 years (16.7%), 9 to 10 years (19.4%), or over 10 years (36.6%) of experience in present position.

Of the questionnaire participants, 11.5% had been in their present position in their present school for less than 1 year, 41% of them had served for either 3 to 4 years or 5 to 6 years in their present position in their present school, and only 10.4% of them had worked for over 10 years in their present position in their present school at the time that they responded to the questionnaires.

The mean number of teachers in the sampled schools was 29.5, and the mean number of pupils in the schools sampled was 461.3. In all, a total of 100 schools were surveyed. The teachers and headteachers surveyed by questionnaire came from the three major categories of public secondary schools across the country; namely, national, provincial, and district.

The findings from the interview data have indicated that teachers and headteachers had differing views regarding the meaning of instructional supervision. The findings from questionnaire data as well as from interviews revealed that internal instructional supervision served the following major purposes: (a) to enhance student performance, (b) to ensure that teachers perform their instructional duties as mandated by the higher authorities, and (c) to facilitate curriculum implementation. The literature concurred with the findings that supervision is quality control, the major purposes of which are to monitor teaching and learning in the schools and to ensure that teachers meet acceptable level of performance; and that supervision should benefit both teachers and students.

The findings from the questionnaire data revealed that the following foci of internal instructional supervision received the highest rankings in both the existing and the preferred extent of examination: (a) availability of properly organized pupils' progress records, (b) availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered, and (c) teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations. The findings from the interview data reveal the following major foci of internal instructional supervision: (a) teacher's attendance to scheduled lessons, (b) teacher's participation in extracurricular and curricular activities, (c) teacher-student interaction, and (d) teacher's effectiveness in the class. The two areas in which the findings concur with the literature in terms of the foci of internal instructional supervision included (a) availability of teachers' artifacts of teaching, such as lesson plans and schemes of work and (b) teachers' attendance to scheduled classes.

The findings from the questionnaire data revealed that one practice, recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers, was ranked highest by teachers and headteachers as existing and preferred supervisory practice. The interview findings reveal the following major practices of internal instructional supervision: (a) checking teachers' professional tools of work, such as schemes of work and records of work covered; (b) examination of students' exercise books; (c) using students to obtain information about teachers; and (d) holding conferences with teachers. The findings concurred with the literature in two areas relative to practices of internal instructional supervision: (a) recognizing and rewarding deserving teachers and students and (b) supervision by walking around. However, whereas the findings indicate that the involvement of students in assessing teacher performance was not a common practice in the schools, the literature has consistently shown that student evaluation of teacher performance has been a valuable source of information about teacher effectives.

The findings indicate that the majority of teachers and headteachers viewed two documents, the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) Code of regulations and policy memos from the Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs), as having great or high influence in internal instructional supervision. The findings show clearly that the majority of teachers and headteachers agreed that a great deal of importance was attached to two aspects, schemes of work and records of work done, of the *Heads' Manual* as existing and preferred aspects. The interview findings indicate that, in general, the majority of interview participants appeared ignorant about the existence of government documents relevant to internal instructional supervision. The findings from the questionnaire-based data indicated that, based on teachers' and headteachers' perceptions, one attribute of the internal instructional supervisor, the ability to communicate effectively, received a high ranking in terms of importance in the headteacher's instructional supervisory role and the need for further preparation of the headteacher. This is one of the areas in which the findings concurred with the literature.

The findings from the interview data reveal the following skills and attributes required of internal instructional supervisors: (a) ability to lead by example, (b) high integrity, and (c) knowledge of delegation and public relations. In contrast to the findings that skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom and holding conferences were not essential in instructional supervisors' leadership roles, the literature has shown that instructional supervisors should be grounded in observation and conferencing skills.

The findings from the questionnaire data reveal that two types of personnel, the headteacher and the deputy-headteacher, ranked highest in terms of the existing and preferred extent of involvement in internal instructional supervision as perceived by teachers and headteachers. These two professionals were also viewed by interview participants as the ones who were mostly involved in the supervision of instruction in the schools. The recognition of the centrality of headteachers and deputy headteachers in facilitating instructional leadership was also supported widely in the literature. However, in contrast to the finding that supervision by colleagues was uncommon in the schools, the literature has clearly indicated that peer supervision is important in the professional development of teachers.

The questionnaire findings further reveal that the majority of teachers and headteachers were somewhat or highly satisfied with the following two aspects of instructional supervision in the schools: (a) the overall quality of instructional supervision and (b) administrative support for the internal instructional supervision program. Similarly, the findings from interview data indicate the following four major aspects of internal instructional supervision in which participants were generally satisfied: (a) the presence of reciprocal exchange of instructional information among peer teachers; (b) the manner in which teaching timetables were developed; (c) the scheduling of departmental staff meetings to address instructional concerns; and (d) the manner in which headteachers encouraged to carry out their instructional responsibilities.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the study regarding developmental activities for participants.

CHAPTER 5

STAFF DEVELOPMENTAL ACTIVITIES

This chapter reports the findings of the study relating to developmental activities of teachers and headteachers. The findings are reported in three major parts based on three specific questions addressed in the study: (a) teachers' and headteachers' involvement in staff development, (b) barriers to staff development for teachers and headteachers, and (c) teachers' and headteachers' recommendations for changes to staff development. A discussion of the major findings and emergent themes is also included.

Participation in and Promotion of Staff Development

This section deals with the analysis of the data obtained from the reactions of teachers and headteachers to questionnaire and interview items regarding developmental activities for teachers and headteachers. The specific research questions addressed in this part were concerned with participants' perceptions about the existence and adequacy of staff development programs for teachers and headteachers.

Questionnaire Findings

On the teacher and headteacher questionnaire instrument (Appendices B and C), the respondents were requested to identify the professional activities in which they had participated since they were employed as teachers or headteachers. The participants were also asked to indicate whether they had taken in-service education courses in instructional supervision, where these courses were taken, and the benefits obtained from the courses. Frequency and percentage distributions as well as Chi-square analyses were computed.

Finally, each teacher and headteacher questionnaire included statements describing the role of the headteacher in the promotion of staff development of teachers. Participants were requested to indicate their level of agreement with each statement by choosing from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A response of *not applicable* (N/A) was provided. For details about specific statements regarding developmental activities for teachers and headteachers, see Appendixes A and B. The percentage and frequency descriptions, mean scores, and standard deviations for each of the aspects of the roles were computed from the data obtained. The results are presented in this section in two parts, first for teachers and then for headteachers.

Teachers

The findings regarding teachers' perceptions of their participation in staff development activities are presented in this section. Included in this section are findings relating to teachers' views about the headteacher's role in the promotion of staff development for teachers. Only the roles that received the highest and lowest rankings in terms of teachers' level of agreement with and degree of importance attached to the roles as perceived by teachers have been included.

Participation. Teachers' and headteachers' responses regarding their participation in developmental activities were synthesized from the data (see Appendix E, Table 5.1). Teachers had participated in workshops or courses organized by (a) the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC, 53%), (b) other organizations (43%), (c) the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE; 35%), (d) the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT;

27%), and (e) the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI; 6%; see Appendix E, Table 5.1).

Frequency distributions regarding teachers' involvement in other types of professional activities were synthesized from participants' written comments (see Appendix E, Table 5.2). A total of 69 teachers had participated in other types of professional activities, 38 had participated specifically in workshops coordinated by District Education Officers (DEOs), and 9 had participated in workshops organized by the Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs; see Appendix E, Table 5.2). Written comments indicated the following major foci of professional in-service training at the District Education offices in which the teachers participated: (a) guidance and counseling, (b) setting and marking mock examinations, (c) duties of heads of departments, (d) instructional improvements, and (e) organization of annual music festivals. Written comments by three teachers revealed three major foci of the workshops at the Provincial Education offices in which teachers had participated: (a) guidance and counseling, (b) organization of the Provincial Science Congress, and (c) the role of the headteacher. Other professional activities in which teachers had been involved, as Table 5.2 shows, included participation in workshops organized by the Inspectorate wing of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, in SMASSE (Strengthening Mathematics and Science Secondary Education) workshops and in workshops organized by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

Teachers' and headteachers' responses regarding their participation in in-service education in instructional supervision were also explored (see Appendix E, Table 5.3). Only 32 teachers (25%) revealed that they had taken in-service courses in instructional supervision, as indicated in Table 5.3. Only 32 teachers had taken courses in instructional supervision organized at varying stations across the country, especially at Teachers' Training Colleges (TTCs; see Table 5.4). Some of the benefits gained from such courses, as Table F4 reports, included knowledge about (a) developing instructional materials, (b) improving teaching effectiveness, (c) examining students' work, and (d) supervising students.

Headteacher promotion of instructional supervision. Teachers' responses regarding their level of agreement with the headteacher's roles in the promotion of staff development for teachers in the schools were determined from the data obtained (see Appendix E, Table 5.5). The headteacher's role—namely, "providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties"—was ranked first in terms of teachers' level of agreement; "providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and workshops" ranked second; and "recommending key teachers for promotion" ranked third in terms of teachers' level of agreement (see Appendix E, Table 5.5). At the other extreme, "offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies," "acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletter," and "planning for continuing staff development activities" were ranked lowest in terms of teachers' level of agreement (see Appendix E, Table 5.5).

"Recommending key teachers for promotion," "providing opportunities for teachers to assume leadership," and "advising teachers on how to go about interviews for promotion organized by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC)" ranked first, second, and third, respectively, in terms of teachers' perceived degree of importance that the headteacher should give to the instructional supervision process (see Appendix E, Table 5.6). At the other end of the continuum, three roles ranked last in terms of teachers' perceived degree of importance: (a) "offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies," (b) "acknowledging teacher participation in school bulletin or newsletter," and (c) "encouraging inter-school teacher visitations" (see Appendix E, Table 5.6).

Headteachers

This section presents the findings related to headteachers' perceptions of their participation in professional development activities. The findings regarding headteachers' perceptions of the headteacher's role in the promotion of staff development for teachers are also included in this section. Only the roles that ranked highest and lowest in terms of level of agreement with and degree of importance attached to the roles as perceived by headteachers have been included.

Participation. Headteachers' participation in professional development activities was also determined from the data (see Appendix E, Table 5.1. Headteachers reported participating in workshops organized by (a) the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE; 46%), (b) the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI; 75%), (c) the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC; 46%), (d) the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT; 27%), and (e) other organizations (60%; see Appendix E, Table 5.1). A total of 28 headteachers had participated in other professional activities as follows: (a) workshops organized by the Kenya Secondary School Headteachers' Association (KSSHA), (b) workshops coordinated by Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs), and (c) workshops organized by District education Officers (DEOs; see Table 5.7). A few of the headteachers had participated in workshops facilitated by other organizations, such as (a) the Kenya Institute of Administration (KIA), (b) nongovernmental organizations, (c) the British Council, (d) the Commission for Higher Education, and (e) the Inspectorate wing of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (see Table 5.7).

Nearly 62% of the headteachers had taken in-service courses in instructional supervision. A total of 30 headteachers had taken courses in instructional supervision at the various institutions, including secondary schools, teachers training colleges (TTCs), and District Education headquarters (see Table 5.8). Among the major benefits gained by the headteachers who participated in courses in instructional supervision included knowledge regarding (a) teacher motivation, (b) importance of instructional supervision, (c) supervision and administrative skills, (d) the role of the deputy headteacher in curriculum supervision, (e) problem solving, and (f) self-evaluation (see Table 5.8).

Headteacher promotion of instructional supervision. Headteachers ranked "recommending key teachers for promotion" as first in terms of level of agreement and "providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties" as second; "providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and workshops" and "providing opportunities for teachers to assume leadership" tied for third position (see Table 5.9). At the other extreme, "acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletter," "planning for continuing staff development activities," and "offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies" received the lowest rankings in terms of level of agreement as perceived by headteachers (see Table 5.9).

"Recommending key teachers for promotion" ranked first in terms of the degree of importance in instructional supervision process, followed by "providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties" in second position, and, last, "providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and workshops" in third position as perceived by headteachers (see Table 5.10).

Interview Findings

Interviews with teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers revealed numerous in-service training programs in which teachers and headteachers had participated, with substantial achievements. Eight of the interviewees indicated that they were aware of in-service training programs for headteachers organized by the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) and the Kenya Secondary Heads Association (KSSHA) at the national, provincial, and district levels. Two headtechers, two education officers, and three teachers explained that the KESI in-service courses were mainly organized for newly-appointed headteachers; that the facilitators in the programs included school inspectors; that venues for the courses included secondary schools with sufficient boarding facilities; and that the programs were designed mainly by the KESI, with little input from the KSSHA.

Three of the interview participants identified the following foci of the KESI in-service training programs for headteachers: (a) the role of the headteacher as first inspector of the school; (b) management by walking around (MBWA); (c) teachers' classroom attendance; (d) general school management; (e) headteachers' administrative duties; and (f) school inspection strategies. However, there was controversy regarding the inclusion of instructional supervision in the KESI training programs. Whereas one headteacher was categorical that instructional supervision had never been included in the KESI programs, one education officer indicated that supervision of instruction was a common topic in the in-service training programs organized by the KESI. Another controversy was concerned with in-service training programs for deputy headteachers. One education officer explained that the KESI also organized in-service training workshops for deputy headteachers at the provincial and district levels on topics, such as general school administration and financial management. On the other hand, one deputy headteacher noted that there were no in-service training programs for deputy headteachers. This deputy headteacher remarked as follows:

> In-service training for deputies and hods is not done anywhere, neither do we do it in our schools because the Ministry of Education has not come up with a clear policy on how these people could be in-serviced to grow together.

A few interviewees also commented about in-service training programs for teachers. Two headteacher and three teacher interviewees concurred that teachers were not involved in the KESI training programs and that headteachers were expected to in-service teachers in their own respective schools. However, three teachers and two headteachers indicated that in-service training programs for teachers included those organized by the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) and subject panels, with the help of school inspectors based at the national, provincial, and district levels, and that the programs were based on the various subjects, such as Mathematics, Home Science, and Kiswahili. According to these participants, the major foci, especially of workshops organized by subject panels included (a) methods of marking examinations; (b) techniques of answering examination questions; (c) school leadership; and (d) subject syllabi. Among the benefits gained by teachers from the KNUT and subject panel workshops, as suggested by two teachers, included (a) opportunities to share common instructional concerns and (b) an awareness about the topic in the various subject syllabi in terms of their scope and their difficulty. As one teacher stated:

> I have attended a seminar to discuss the syllabus. This helped me to share the problem teachers have encountered and enlightened me about the topics which are too wide or too difficult and which should be replaced.

Two teachers hinted that they had never attended in-service training programs specifically on instructional supervision.

Synthesis and Discussion of Participation and Promotion of Staff Development

The findings from questionnaire data reveal that more headteachers than teachers had participated in workshops organized by the Kenya Education Staff institute (KESI). Written comments indicated that teachers and headteachers had participated in workshops organized by different senior government education officers and institutions, such as District Education Officers (DEOs), Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs), and the Inspectorate wing of the Ministry of Education. Also, the findings indicate that only a few teachers and headteachers had participated in in-service education programs in instructional supervision. Regarding the headteacher's role in staff development for teachers, the findings reveal that the headteacher's role—namely, recommending key teachers for promotion—was ranked highest in terms of level of agreement and degree of importance as perceived by teachers and headteachers. On the other hand, "offering to teach certain classes to demonstrate specific teaching strategies" and "acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletters" ranked lowest in terms of level of agreement and degree of importance as perceived by teachers and headteachers.

Findings from interview data revealed that headteachers had participated in in-service training programs organized by the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) and the Kenya Secondary School Heads Association (KSSHA) at the national, provincial, and district levels. The foci of the KESI and the KSSHA in-service courses for headteachers, as interview data revealed, included (a) the role of the headteacher as first inspector in the school; (b) management by walking around (MBWA); (c) teachers' classroom-attendance; (d) general school management; (e) headteachers' administrative duties; and (f) school inspection strategies. The benefits gained by headteachers, especially from the KESI in-service courses included sharing of administrative experiences and acquisition of supervisory skills and certificates of attendance.

The interview data also revealed that teachers had participated in in-service training programs organized by the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) at the national, provincial, and district levels, and subject panels. The foci of such programs, as interview data indicated, included (a) methods of marking examinations; (b) techniques of answering examination questions; (c) school leadership; and (d) subject syllabi. Among the benefits gained by teachers from the KNUT and subject panel in-service workshops, as interview data revealed, included opportunities to share common instructional concerns and an awareness about the topics in the various subject syllabi. Interview data further revealed that teachers had never attended in-service courses specifically on instructional supervision.

Participation in Staff Development Programs

The participants appeared to believe that the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) in-service training programs were basically tilted toward addressing mainly the professional development concerns of the headteachers. It is, therefore, not surprising that more headteachers than teachers participated in the KESI programs. This institute is one of the major staff development providers for headteachers in Kenya. As explained by the Ministry of Education (1994) and Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education (1993), KESI has been established in Kenya mainly to provide induction courses in management skills, especially to education administrators such as headteachers, principals, school inspectors, and field service officers. Teacher participation in KESI in-service training programs is, therefore, highly limited. Once headteachers have undertaken professional training organized by KESI and other staff development providers, they are expected in turn to provide professional guidance to teachers in their respective schools. As Sogomo (2000) observed, a major role of the headteacher, as the chief executive of the school, is to provide professional guidance to the teaching staff.

It appears that the District Education Officers (DEOs) and the Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs) were involved in facilitating professional development activities for teachers and headteachers. This finding supports the Kenyan government's view regarding the professional roles of these two groups of professionals. For example, as explained by the Ministry of Education (1994), one of the major functions of the Provincial Education Officers (PEOs), currently referred to as Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs), is to advice heads of the various educational institutions on matters regarding education in their respective provinces. Similarly, according to the Ministry of

Education, District Education Officers (DEOs) are responsible for coordinating staff development matters, including promotion, welfare, and discipline of the teaching staff in their respective districts.

Training in Instructional Supervision

It seems that in-service training opportunities for teachers and headteachers are extraordinarily ineffective in preparing these professionals in their respective instructional leadership roles. This finding is contrary to the beliefs held by several writers in the literature regarding in-service training in the area of instructional leadership. For example, the National Staff Development Council (NSDC; 2000) observed that effective professional development for teachers and school principals should be team based and job embedded and focus on the critical aspects of instructional leadership, such as planning lessons, critiquing student work, and group problem solving.

The importance of incorporating instructional supervision in in-service training programs for teachers and headteachers cannot be underestimated. According to Robbins and Alvy (2003), information gained from workshops in supervision can help to provide the rationale for supervision and reduce teacher anxiety about supervision process.

Headteacher's Role in Promoting Staff Development of Teachers

Apparently, the headteacher's role in recommending key teachers for promotion was viewed by teachers and headteachers as an important instructional leadership role of the headteacher. This finding supports the view held by the Kenya Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development (1998) that headteachers should be involved in continuing evaluation of teacher performance for promotion and effective curriculum implementation. In Kenya, headteachers are responsible for supervising and appraising teachers and preparing appraisal reports on teacher performance, usually on a special form designed by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), entitled *Teachers Service Commission Annual Confidential Report* (Republic of Kenya, 1986, p. 55; see Appendix J). The headteacher's comments on such a form may include broad areas, such as (a) teacher's general conduct and personal characteristics, (b) performance in teaching and in carrying out assignments, (c) administrative and organizational ability, and (d) overall assessment. The information provided on the confidential report form may be used by the TSC for decisions regarding teacher promotion and other issues.

However, according to Mogambi (2001), who commented on promotion of Kenyan teachers, some headteachers play games with promotions of teachers; they do not give the necessary or right recommendations for their teachers but, instead, have the tendency to block the promotions of their teachers by giving negative recommendations. In the Kenyan context this area is of critical importance because it touches on teacher professionalism and is a situation that is clearly in desperate need of improvement if the supervision system is to play a role in teacher motivation and professional development.

It seems that the headteacher's instructional leadership role in modeling teaching strategies was not regarded by teachers and headteachers as important. This finding is contrary to Blasé and Blasé's (1999b) findings that revealed that teachers studied reported that (a) their principals occasionally demonstrated teaching techniques during classroom visits to model good instruction, (b) modeling was always followed by a conference in which it was discussed, and (c) modeling was viewed as an impressive example of instructional leadership that yielded positive effects on teacher motivation, including reflective behavior, increased innovation, variety in teaching, focus, and planning.

It appears that headteachers, as instructional leaders, did not seem to value the importance of acknowledging teacher participation in staff development initiatives, especially in school bulletins or newsletters. Alternatively, the headteachers did not seem to care about teacher professional development initiatives to the extent of recognizing and rewarding them. I can speculate that, because of the apparent lack of recognition of teacher participation in staff development programs, teachers generally did not pursue such programs with enthusiasm and pride. As Tanner and Tanner (1987) noted, teacher initiatives in in-service programs without supervisory support are likely to fail: "It is difficult for teachers to maintain enthusiasm [in in-service training] when there is little evidence that supervisors also care" (p. 469).

Barriers to Staff Development For Teachers and Headteachers

This section deals with questionnaire and interview data obtained from teachers, headteachers, and senior education officers regarding their perceptions of the main barriers to staff development for teachers and headteachers. The barriers are presented in two major parts, first for teachers and then for headteachers.

Teachers

Analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire and during the interviews with headteachers, teachers, and senior government education officers revealed numerous barriers to staff development for teachers. The barriers are presented in four major themes: (a) resources, (b) policy, (c) work overload, and (d) staff development opportunities.

Resources

When discussing the barriers to staff development for teachers, 19 teachers and 16 headteachers reported a lack of the necessary resources to facilitate staff development programs for teachers and to carry out the necessary follow-up initiatives based on recommendations from the programs. Many of the comments made by the respondents regarding the lack of resources were prefaced with the following remarks:

1. "Lack of funds to support professional conferences and workshops,"
2. "Shortage of funds,"
3. "Lack of adequate finances,"
4. "None other than lack of finances,"
5. "Financial difficulties,"
6. "Lack of funds to attend courses or advancement in training,"
7. "Lack of enough funds,"
8. "Financial constraints,"
9. "Lack of finances to expose teachers to staff development opportunities," and
10. "Inadequate funds."

Four interviewees expressed their inability to participate in meaningful staff development programs and mentioned the time constraints in staff development for teachers. The general lack of teachers in the country was mentioned repeatedly by some participants as a factor that frustrated staff development initiatives. In almost all instances, the participants believed that this shortage meant that the few teachers deployed in the schools were too overloaded with teaching to undertake any staff development initiatives. Most frequently cited was the lack of finances to enable teachers to attend workshops and conferences outside their schools. Overall, these responses suggest that the lack of desired resources created dissatisfaction in the professional development of teachers.

Policy

Several participants believed that the lack of Ministry of Education policy regarding staff development was a major barrier to staff development for teachers. Five of the participants in their general comments reported that, to the best of their knowledge, they had not come across any written policy on staff development for teachers. Other comments focused on the perceived lack of clearly defined staff development practices and procedures. The following remarks made by five teachers about policy are indicative of their beliefs:

1. "No government policy on staff development,"
2. "There is no clear Ministerial policy on this,"
3. "Lack of proper written policy by the Ministry of Education," and
4. "Lack of well-defined policy on staff development procedures."

Not only was the absence of a policy regarding staff development an issue, but the lack of clear direction from the higher authorities about the practices and procedures of professional development programs for teachers was also questioned because teachers were generally confused in their quest for professional growth.

Workload

The "demanding and heavy workload" was frequently cited as a major barrier to teacher staff development. Seven of the participants observed that, because of too much work, especially in subject areas, teachers had limited time for involvement in staff development matters. Some teacher interviewees expressed their perceived frustration with the heavy work demands and described their workload as follows: "unbearable workload," "too much work," and "high workload."

Staff Development Opportunities

Nine of the interview participants identified the lack of opportunities as a major barrier to staff development for teachers. In many cases, the respondents felt that teachers appeared to be deliberately excluded from participating in staff development programs. Also prevalent was a growing concern among a few participants that headteachers appeared to have failed to facilitate professional learning of teachers in their respective schools. The following quote is illustrative of one teacher's prevailing sense of frustration on this issue:

> The practice we have in this country is that it may be safe for the headteachers who go for annual seminars related to their work. Teachers hardly go. So while the headteachers are armed with all the information related to the work to be done in schools, the teacher who is supposed to be the beneficiary is not taken for a seminar or a related seminar to be receptive for such kind of work. So it is very important that that one is also to be encouraged. There is always a cry that "Who will be in school as the teachers attend the seminars?"

Three headteachers also wrote:

1. "Lack of opportunities,"
2. "Limited opportunities," and
3. "Unavailability of places relative to staff development."

An education officer added, "Headteachers are expected to in-service teachers in their own schools, but this rarely happens; the Ministry of Education has not made attempt to ensure that this happens."

Headteachers

Teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers cited numerous barriers to staff development for headteachers. The major barriers are given in this section in four major themes: (a) resources, (b) policy, (c) workload, and (d) staff development opportunities.

Resources

Twenty-two participants perceived that the necessary resources, such as funds, to facilitate staff development for headteachers were lacking. Some of the participants, in expressing their concerns regarding the lack of resources, wrote as follows:

1. "Lack of finances,"
2. "There is the financial constraint,"
3. "Lack of funds,"
4. "Finances may be insufficient,"
5. "Shortage of funds,"
6. "The main barrier is lack of financial support,"
7. "Financial difficulty,"
8. "Funding of staff development is a major problem," and
9. "Financial limitations."

Four headteacher interviewees explained that, because of the lack of funding, their participation in workshops and seminars relevant to their staff development were highly limited. Some participants were concerned about the lack of time for headteachers to participate in staff development programs. Others believed that, as a result of the general poor economic status of the country, staff development opportunities for headteachers were limited. As one headteacher commented, "The biggest limitation regarding staff development for headteachers has to do with the lack of funding, especially from the Ministry of Education. As you know, we don't get any money from our Ministry to support local in-service training." Another headteacher added, "But where is the time for in-service training for headteachers? School programs are always congested. Our priority is to complete the syllabuses so that our students can pass the final examinations."

One headteacher interviewee believed that headteachers did not get sufficient support from the TSC to support their staff development programs. This headteacher remarked:

> I don't think we get enough support from the employer, the TSC, for our staff development in this country. The TSC has not come up with any meaningful staff development programs for us. I think this is an oversight. The Ministry of Education tries, but not the TSC.

Policy

Seven of the interview participants agreed that there was no clear Ministry of Education policy relating to staff development for headteachers, and, consequently, many headteachers were ignorant about what their professional growth entailed. Four teachers, in their general remarks regarding policy, wrote as follows:

1. "Lack of proper policy by the Ministry of education,"
2. "The government policy about staff development is wanting,"
3. "No proper guidelines on staff development," and
4. "No clear-cut policies."

According to one teacher, staff development programs for headteachers have been poorly planned apparently due to lack of proper Ministry of Education guidelines. This teacher remarked, "I believe that staff development programs for our heads of schools have been very poorly organized and planned. I have not come across any guidelines on how our Ministry organizes this. Things are just done by chance."

Workload

A further constraint associated with staff development for headteachers cited by three participants was concerned with the workload associated with the headship. Some participants felt that, in general, many headteachers failed to participate in staff development programs because of their busy work schedules at schools demanded by the overloaded 8-4-4 school curriculum. One headteacher remarked as follows: "The 8-4-4 education curriculum is really heavy on our part. Headteachers are always busy with noninstructional work on a daily basis and hardly find time to engage in staff development programs."

Staff Development Opportunities

Eight of the participants were of the opinion that sufficient professional development opportunities for headteachers were lacking. Two headteacher interviewees, in expressing their disappointment regarding staff development opportunities, commented as follows:

1. "Lack of opportunities for staff development," and
2. "Lack of openings resulting in severe competition for few chances."

One headteacher interviewee observed that, because of very limited opportunities for professional development, identifying individuals for further professional development was sometimes based on dubious factors; as a result, high-performing headteachers were not considered. This headteacher stated:

> Staff development opportunities for headteachers are highly limited. This means that only very few headteachers may have the chance to go for further in-service training. The identification of such headteachers is based on unknown and usually dubious criteria which we really don't understand.

Some participants blamed the limited participation in staff development programs by headteachers on the usual inappropriateness of the course content of in-service training programs, which, they argued, did not take into consideration essential administrative elements such as management skills. As one headteacher lamented:

> Usually the course contents, especially in KESI training programs, are not relevant to our needs. You go there and you find that everything has already been arranged and you have to take it. The essential skills in management that we may need to improve our supervision in the schools are not included in the programs. This is one of the reasons as to why some headteachers are reluctant to participate in in-service training programs.

Synthesis and Discussion of Emergent Themes

The findings from questionnaire and interview data have revealed the following major barriers to staff development of teachers and headteachers: (a) lack of resources, (b) lack of policy on staff development, (c) heavy workload associated with the 8-4-4 education system, and (d) lack of staff development opportunities. A discussion of these barriers is included in this section.

Resources

Apparently, the participants regarded the lack of resources, such as funds, as an important barrier to staff development for teachers and headteachers. The problem of the lack of resources in teacher in-service education in Kenya has persisted over the years. For example, Republic of Kenya (1999) observed that, because of inadequate resources, the Ministry of Education has not put into place comprehensive teacher in-service programs to prepare teachers to cope with changes and challenges in the teaching profession. Furthermore, Wanzare and Ward (2000), discussing barriers to staff development, cited a lack of funds to meet the costs of mounting in-service training programs for teachers. And, more recently, the *Nation* Editor (2001), commenting specifically about in-service training opportunities for headteachers, reported that, although the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) was set up primarily to provide management training of headteachers and other school administrators, it rarely does that because of lack of personnel and funds.

Some participants blamed the lack of resources on the general economic condition of the country. This belief supports Kipkulei's (1990) claim that Kenya, like any other developing country, continues to experience a shortage of resources that are needed to meet national development requirements; as a result, the education sector must share equally whatever government funds are voted to run educational services.

The persistent absence of needed resources to support professional development programs for teachers may have serious negative consequences. For example, Speck (1999) and Zepeda (1999) asserted that if resources for professional development are unavailable, teachers are likely to become disillusioned with efforts to improve the school and thus revert to old ways of doing things; and that without adequate funding, which is the final condition for success, job-embedded staff development is a severely disabled vehicle for school change. Therefore, providing adequate resources for training programs for teachers and headteachers is key to professional development because it ensures that professional learning is reinforced, and it is a key role for professional development because simple exposure to ideas is inadequate for the growth of a culture of teacher professionalism.

Policy

There does not appear to be a clear policy from the Ministry of Education regarding staff development programs for teachers and headteachers; consequently, these two groups of professionals did not engage in meaningful professional development undertakings. As a result, they had limited opportunities to enhance their quality of teaching. This finding contradicts Kenya's belief regarding teaching quality. As explained by Republic of Kenya (1999), one of the determinants of quality education is the availability of a well-qualified and highly motivated teaching force that is capable of understanding the needs of the curriculum in order to implement it effectively.

It is apparent that staff development for Kenyan teachers and headteachers in its current form seems to be misguided in both policy and practice; it is not the product of a coherent policy, nor has it been systematically integrated with school, instructional, or curricular improvement priorities. This state of affairs suggests that policymakers have little opportunity to assess either costs or benefits of staff development as a public investment.

Workload

It appears that, because of the heavy workload associated with the 8-4-4 Kenyan education system, teachers and headteachers have had inadequate time for involvement in meaningful staff development programs. Concurring with this finding, the literature (e.g., Republic of Kenya, 1999; Sitima, 1988) has revealed that the heavy workload characteristic of the 8-4-4 system of education imposes a great deal of strain on teachers and headteachers and grossly affects the quality of teaching and learning because of the lack of time for effective implementation. Also, Rono (2002) observed that a major challenge in secondary headship in Kenya concerns the "management of secondary school curriculum that is broad, overloaded, and expensive to implement" (p. 15).

It seems that the time demands imposed by daily teaching and other aspects of educational reform continue to absorb a bulk of teachers' energy and attention. It is, therefore, not surprising to find that teachers and headteachers in Kenya do not have sufficient time to participate in professional learning programs. Several writers converged on the notion that the time element is an important consideration in designing staff development programs. For example, Glatthorn and Fox (1996) argued that provision of quality time is crucial, especially for self-directed staff development initiatives, to enable individual teachers to work on their own and to focus on professional growth goals.

Staff Development Opportunities

Staff development opportunities for teachers and headteachers appeared to be highly limited; consequently, the very few opportunities that were available were sometimes given to undeserving individuals, based on dubious selection criteria. These findings are consistent with those of the *Report of the Commission of Inquiry Into the Education System of Kenya* (Republic of Kenya, 1999), which revealed that "once teachers have completed the pre-service training, there are limited opportunities to enhance their professional growth and development" (p. 170). I can speculate that, although the Ministry of Education expects continued quality service from teachers and headteachers, the resource barrier seems to limit the Ministry's endeavor to explore varied and sufficient staff development opportunities for these professionals.

The extant literature on staff development (e.g., Dunlop, 1990; Glatthorn & Fox, 1996; Zepeda, 1999) resonated with the beliefs that all teachers need opportunities for effective staff development, that the development of teachers lies at the heart of improving schooling, and that the principals need job-embedded opportunities for their professional learning as principals.

Participants' Suggestions for Changes to Staff Development

This section deals with questionnaire and interview data obtained from teachers, headteachers, and senior education officers regarding their perceptions of needed changes to improve staff development for secondary teachers and headteachers. The suggestions given are presented in this section in eight major themes: (a) resourcing, (b) policy, (c) workload, (d) in-service training opportunities and (e) collaboration.

Resourcing

Nine participants voiced their desire for change with respect to resource allocation to support staff development programs for teachers and headteachers. Although responses varied greatly, the provision of funds was at the core of their concerns. Some of the sources of funding suggested by six participants included (a) individual schools through the Boards of Governors (BoGs) and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs), (b) the Kenya Secondary School Heads Association (KSSHA), and (c) the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology. As one education officer stated, "I think the BoGs in the various schools should facilitate funding for professional development programs through their respective PTAs." A teacher added, "The Ministry of Education and the Heads Association should endeavor to assist schools by providing funds to support staff development programs for teachers and headteachers, especially those organized at the district and provincial levels."

Three participants proposed that the cost of in-service training for teachers and headteachers should be shared between schools and the Ministry of Education. As one headteacher suggested:

> It would be a good idea if the Ministry of Education can share the cost for in-service training for teachers and headteachers with individual schools. But most of the cost should be met by the Ministry because schools are already overloaded with expenses.

Policy

Forty-five of the participants stressed the need to have a clearly written policy concerning professional development of teachers and headteachers. They wished that the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology would take the initiative in developing a policy specifically on in-service training. The most commonly cited reason for policy development was its perceived role in facilitating school-based supervision and staff development. For example, one teacher suggested, "So for at least good supervision to take place, Ministerial guidelines are very important."

Workload

Another area in which the participants felt that they needed a change was concerned with the heavy workload imposed by current Kenya's 8-4-4 education system. Thirty-four of the participants favored the idea of reviewing the 8-4-4 education curriculum to reduce the heavy burden that teachers and headteachers currently experience. Consistent with these findings are the recommendations of the *Report of the Commission of Inquiry Into the Education System of Kenya* (Republic of Kenya, 1999) that the 8-4-4 education curriculum be reviewed to reflect the current needs of society and that the content and number of subjects offered be reduced.

In-Service Training Opportunities

Sixteen of the interview participants expressed a need for more in-service training opportunities for teachers and headteachers. Most frequently cited were the reasons for in-service training of teachers and headteachers; for example, to enable them to meet their professional expectations, to facilitate their understanding about human relations, and to enlighten them on instructional supervision. The following statement indicates one teacher's belief regarding in-service training:

> I think that is very important for exposure for both heads and teachers, because there are some new people in the profession, and they are not aware about what is expected of them. Even some heads who are very young who have just picked the responsibility because they bought the headship, they don't know how to handle people.

In almost all instances the need for in-service training opportunities was raised to indicate that professional development of teachers and headteachers was considered vital by the participants.

Collaboration

A final other noteworthy area identified by the participants for future staff development for teachers and headteachers was concerned with collaboration. Eighteen participants stressed the importance of facilitating sharing of ideas among all of the key players in the professional development of teachers and headteachers. The most commonly cited area for change included consideration for teachers' and headteachers' voices in the development of course content. As one headteacher stated, "Our ideas should be incorporated into the training programs. We need to be involved in designing course contents of in-service programs. Why should we be left out?"

Also prevalent was a growing concern that teachers and headteachers, being the key implementers of educational policies on the ground, should have the opportunity to recommend professional development formats that they deemed appropriate for their needs. The following quote is illustrative of the belief held by one teacher in support of collaboration: "Need for teachers' input into their in-service training programs so that they don't feel left out." A headteacher similarly echoed:

> Heads to have more input in terms of the topics for discussion during training because they are the people on the ground. The headteachers are the people on the ground, and they are the implementers. They should actually have a say on their in-service training programs.

Although the participants varied greatly regarding the modality for involving teachers and headteachers in matters concerning their professional development, a majority indicated that they wanted a mechanism for soliciting the views of these professionals and especially for defining their professional needs, possibly through appropriate interviews or questionnaires.

Synthesis and Discussion of Suggestions for Changes to Staff Development

The findings based on questionnaire and interview data indicate the following major suggestions for changes to staff development: (a) Provide needed resources and materials, (b) develop a clearly written policy on staff development, (c) review the current overloaded 8-4-4 education curriculum, (d) provide more in-service training opportunities to teachers and headteachers, and (e) involve teachers and headteachers adequately in planning, developing, and implementing their staff development programs. Each of these suggestions is discussed in the following section.

Resourcing

The participants appeared to be concerned that the provision of the necessary resources to facilitate staff development for teachers and headteachers was critical. There is strong agreement in the literature (e.g., Duke, 1995b; Glatthorn & Fox, 1999; Zepeda, 1999) that quality staff development efforts should be supported with adequate resources, such as funds, trained personnel, tuition credits, and release time. Also, Jonasson (1993) asserted that "if we wish to promote student learning in schools, we must invest time, money, and energies into the training and development of teachers" (p. 19). However, as Njoka (1995) observed, the current trend globally is for teachers to be encouraged to take more responsibility for identifying their own training needs and to be more imaginative and resourceful in identifying sources of funds to pay for their training.

Policy

There seems to be an urgent need to develop a policy regarding staff development of teachers and headteachers. The participants seemed to be in agreement that policy development and review, including determining strategic directions and overall monitoring, should be the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology. I can speculate that the development of an appropriate policy for staff development might (a) make in-service training programs become more attractive to teachers and to headteachers as potential consumers, to the extent that professional learning for these professionals becomes a reality; (b) enable the Ministry of Education to rethink the purposes, structures, and content of future staff development that are most likely to enhance the quality of teachers and headteachers; (c) enable the Ministry of education to provide teachers and headteachers with the opportunity to contribute more effectively by developing their abilities and skills; (d) provide a rich and diverse menu of professional development opportunities for teachers and headteachers for meaningful continued learning and for change efforts; and (e) establish an environment of trust and encouragement for professional learning.

Also, within a well-defined Ministry of Education policy framework, control over staff development resources will most likely become a useful part of school planning and development; and teachers and headteachers might be encouraged to rethink their involvement in staff development programs and to concentrate on professional learning experiences that would enhance their performance for the benefit of students. Additionally, the policy framework regarding staff development is likely to serve as the basis for developing school-level policies for professional learning for teachers and headteachers based on their individual contexts.

Workload

It appears that participants, in general, held the view that the 8-4-4 education curriculum should be reviewed with a view to reducing the current heavy workload imposed on teachers and headteachers and creating more time for involvement of teachers and headteachers in professional learning initiatives. This finding concurs with other appeals to the Kenyan government to reduce this curriculum. For example, the *Report of the Commission of Inquiry Into the Education System in Kenya* (*Koech Report*; Republic of Kenya, 1999) recommended that, because the content of the 8-4-4 education system is overloaded and is impossible to cover within the specified academic years, there is a need to overhaul the system to make it manageable. And, more recently, the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) (1990) and Chisika (2003) addressed the need to overhaul this education system because it has become burdensome to parents and to students. Similar sentiments regarding the review of this system of education have been voiced elsewhere (e.g., Agina, 2002; Iraki, 2002; *Nation* Correspondent, 2003; *Standard* Correspondent, 2002).

However, this finding is contrary to the views of a few Kenyans who have opposed the calls to overhaul the 8-4-4 education system. For example, Lumiti (2002), in reflecting on the views of Kenyatta University (KU) Vice Chancellor George Eshiwani, and Muganda (2003), observed that this education system is the best for Kenya because of its substantial achievements in structural adjustments as well as in preparing the students who have gone through it for their future academic endeavors.

In an apparent response to the many calls for the overhaul of the 8-4-4 education system, the Kenyan government has recently endeavored to drop some school subjects to ease the burden on pupils, teachers, and parents and perhaps will continue to review this system of education.

In-service Training Opportunities

The participants seemed to concur in their desire for in-service training opportunities for teachers and headteachers to educate them on their professional roles. This finding is consistent with the Kenyan government's future development plan for teachers and headteachers. For example, the *Report of the Commission of Inquiry Into the Education System of Kenya* (Republic of Kenya, 1999) recommended that (a) budgetary allocation be provided to strengthen in-service training of teachers, (b) teachers be given opportunities to further their academic and pedagogical skills, and (c) headteachers be reinforced in their capabilities to enable them to perform their responsibilities effectively.

This finding also supports the sentiments expressed by Njoka (1995), Kibe (1995), and *Nation* Editor (2001) that, because the initial training of teachers is not adequate for professional growth, because teachers and headteachers operate in dynamic socio-cultural settings, because courses in educational administration and management at the pre-service training are deficient in content, and because education is a lifelong process, the Ministry of Education must set up regular in-service training programs for teachers and headteachers in the skills essential for their respective professional roles.

Collaboration

It seems that the participants regarded collaboration in which teachers' and headteachers' inputs are considered as key to the success of staff development programs. Collaboration in staff development programs means that teachers and headteachers would become more intimately involved in the design, development, implementation, and evaluation of staff development programs. As a result, they would most likely accept more responsibility for the quality of their staff development programs and work closely with staff development providers to ensure the success of the programs. Teacher involvement in staff development training is particularly crucial because, as Kinyua (1995) noted, unless teachers are willing to participate in educational development, there is no future in innovative practices.

The involvement of the teachers in staff development must be genuine by allowing proper participation in planning and decision making. There must be a shared endeavor among all the stakeholders in the programs. Teachers, especially, must be consulted rather than patronized. That teacher involvement in staff development programs is crucial has been supported by views from several writers in the literature. For example, Pink and Hyde (1992), in concurring with Zepeda (1999) and Brandt (1994), recommended that when planning for and subsequently implementing staff development, there is a need to include teachers on the planning and implementation teams and to give teachers and administrators equal "voice" in defining and resolving the issues for discussion, and that it is important that teachers have ownership in the staff development activities. They further cautioned that to continue to ignore the knowledge and expertise of teachers as key elements to successful school change is to limit severely the effectiveness of even the best-intentioned staff development activities. Speck (1999) observed that teachers see the most important improvement in their practices when they take an active role in articulating problems, exploring solutions, and applying new techniques. The research literature (e.g., Clarke, 1995; Guskey, 1995; Hawley & Valli, 1999) indicated that the collaborative approach to staff development, involving all the key players, makes sense and that teachers' involvement in professional development increases their motivation and commitment to learn and, therefore, is an essential component of effective professional development.

Summary

This chapter was dedicated to presenting the findings of the study relative to developmental activities of teachers and headteachers. The findings reveal that the major coordinators for professional development are District Education Officers (DEOs) and Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs), who are the chief education officers responsible for overseeing matters relating to education in the districts and provinces, respectively. Although only about 6% of the teachers had participated in Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) courses, 75% of the headteachers had been involved in workshops organized by KESI. Only a very small proportion of teachers (about 27%) and headteachers (nearly 27%) had participated in courses organized by the National Union of Teachers (KNUT).

Apparently, only few teachers and headteachers had undertaken in-service education in instructional supervision at the various stations across the country, including individual schools, teachers training colleges (TTCs), and district and provincial education headquarters. However, whereas only 25% of the teachers had taken in-service courses in instructional supervision, nearly 62% of the headteachers had taken courses in instructional supervision. Both of these groups of professionals made substantial achievements through their involvement in instructional supervision in-service courses. In general, the teachers studied agreed that their participation in instructional supervision courses facilitated the development of instructional materials, improved their teaching effectiveness, and increased their skills in examining students' work and their abilities in supervising students. On the other hand, the headteachers studied indicated that the courses in instructional supervision enlightened them on the importance of supervision of instruction, provided them with supervision and administrative skills, enlightened them on the role of the deputy headteacher in curriculum supervision and teacher motivation, and provided them with knowledge regarding problem solving and self-evaluation. The role of the headteacher—namely, "recommending key teachers for promotion"—ranked highest in terms of level of agreement and degree of importance given to this role in instructional supervision as perceived by teachers and headteachers.

Numerous barriers to staff development of teachers and headteachers were identified. The major barriers were those associated with lack of resources; lack of Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology policy on staff development; lack of adequate staff development opportunities, and lack of involvement of teachers and headteachers adequately in planning, developing, and implementing their staff development programs. Among the proposed strategies toward the improvement of staff development programs included providing adequate resources and materials, developing an appropriate policy regarding staff development, providing the necessary rewards and incentives to individuals who undertake staff development initiatives, providing more staff development opportunities, and observing a great deal of professionalism in the practices of staff development.

The major barriers to staff development for teachers and headteachers identified in the study and the corresponding proposed strategies for improvement are summarized below.

Barrier	Proposed strategies for improvement
1. Lack of resources	1. Provision of adequate resources and materials
2. Lack of policy	2. Development of a clear policy regarding in-service education
3. Heavy workload	3. Review of the 8-4-4 education curriculum
4. Lack of staff development opportunities	4. Provision of more in-service training opportunities
5. Lack of professionalism	5. Encouragement of a great deal of professionalism

In Chapter 6 the findings regarding advantages, problems, and suggested changes for effectiveness in practices of internal instructional

CHAPTER 6

ADVANTAGES, PROBLEMS, AND SUGGESTED CHANGES FOR EFFECTIVENESS IN PRACTICES OF INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Chapter 5 presented the findings of the study regarding developmental activities of teachers and headteachers. This current chapter reports the findings regarding the participants' perceptions about advantages, problems, and desired changes in supervision practices and procedures. The findings reported in this chapter were those based on qualitative data obtained from the open-ended sections of questionnaire surveys as well as from interviews. A discussion of emergent themes is also included. The chapter is organized into three major parts: (a) advantages of existing practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision, (b) problems of existing practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision, and (c) suggested changes in practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision.

Advantages of Existing Practices and Procedures of Internal Instructional Supervision

One of the questions addressed in the study concerned the participants' views regarding the advantages of the current internal instructional supervision practices and procedures. Teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers cited numerous advantages associated with the existing internal instructional supervision practices and procedures in four major themes: (a) academic progress, (b) quality of teaching and learning, (c) monitoring teachers' work, and (d) curriculum and instruction.

Academic Progress

Thirty-one participants thought it served to highlight the benefits of instructional supervision practices relative to student performance. In general, these participants agreed that internal instructional supervision practices had enabled students to work hard and to improve their academic performance in the final examinations and, thus, improved the overall examination results. The participants also believed that through the practices of instructional supervision, teachers were able to evaluate students' performance more effectively with a view to facilitating their performance. The following remarks typified some of the views held by four teachers about the advantages of instructional supervision practices:

1. "Improving performance of students."
2. "Help in the overall improvement of student performance in the national examinations."
3. "Improve examination results in schools."
4. "Lead to great improvement in examinations."
5. "For student academic excellence."
6. "Result in better performance of students."

Eight participants believed that the practices of internal instructional supervision ensured that students received maximum attention from their teachers to maximize performance and that teachers were well-acquainted with the high academic standards expected of students.

Seven headteachers reported that, through instructional supervision practices, headteachers were in a position to monitor academic progress in their schools. These headteachers identified the following as outcomes of instructional supervision:

1. "The headteachers are able to monitor students' class-work."
1. "Allow headteacher to have a full overview of the school's academic progress."
2. "Allow the headteacher to have close contact with subject teachers to identify academic concerns and how they can be addressed."
3. "Ensure headteacher is aware of what is going on in the school academically."

Two headteachers concluded that through instructional supervision practices, headteachers were able to manage their schools effectively. As one headteacher remarked, "When I conduct internal supervision, I find that I increase my effectiveness in managing the school. I am able to bring everybody together, students, teachers, and non-teaching staff, through supervision."

Quality of Teaching and Teachers

Thirty-five participants reported that internal instructional supervision practices had improved the quality of teaching in the schools. The teachers and headteachers, especially, noted that the practices had enabled teachers to keep abreast of instructional methods, to identify teaching and learning problems, to evaluate themselves, to address areas of their weaknesses, to teach according to the timetable, and to improve their teaching effectiveness. They also believed that the practices had motivated teachers, encouraged them to prepare and to plan their teaching, and helped them to realize their instructional goals. Furthermore, feelings of satisfaction were expressed regarding the role of supervision practices in enabling teachers, working jointly with headteachers, to diagnose and address their instructional concerns.

The following remarks were made by five teachers regarding the benefits of supervision practices with respect to the quality of teaching:

1. "Enable students to get better instruction from teachers."
2. "Result in high academic standards."
3. "Make teachers plan for effective teaching."
4. "Improve teaching methodology and approaches."
5. "Improve teaching quality."
6. "Increase teacher efficiency."
7. "Enable teachers to develop better instructional skills."

Ten participants felt that instructional supervision practices enabled headteachers to assess the adequacy of instructional materials, to address shortfalls in order to improve teaching, and to encourage teachers to work toward their instructional goals. Additionally, five participants concluded that instructional supervision practices had improved and maintained teaching in the schools.

Monitoring Teachers' Work

Another noteworthy area to which the participants paid pronounced attention was concerned with monitoring teachers' performance and teaching. Twenty-nine participants reported that internal instructional supervision practices had enabled headteachers to keep teachers on their toes by assessing and monitoring their instructional work closely on a daily basis and, thus, to reduce teachers' laxity in their teaching. Some teacher participants, in particular, felt that through the practices, the headteachers had been able to keep abreast of teachers to assist them accordingly and to ensure that teachers performed their work as mandated by the school and higher authorities and that they worked as a team. A few participants indicated that, through instructional supervision, headteachers were able to identify marginal teachers who needed special coaching in order to survive in the profession. The following written remarks typify the beliefs of six teachers and seven headteachers about instructional supervision relative to monitoring teachers' performance:

1. “Keep teachers alert in their work.”
2. “Enable headteachers to crack down lazy teachers.”
3. “Teachers are kept busy and on their toes; enable the headteacher to monitor teachers daily in instructional activities.”
4. “Enable headteacher to assess his teachers.”
5. “Reduce laxity on the part of teachers.”
6. “Make teachers work hard and keep up-to-date records.”

Four participants agreed that instructional supervision practices enabled teachers, especially those who were newly appointed, to know what was required of them as professionals. Two headteacher interviewees concluded that instructional supervision facilitated school administration and enabled headteachers to manage instructional time effectively because the process ensured that teachers always attended to their duties.

Curriculum and Instruction

Forty-two participants perceived that instructional supervision practices play an important role in curriculum and instruction. Twenty-one specifically reported that instructional supervision practices enabled teachers to implement the school curriculum effectively and to cover the various subject syllabuses adequately in time. Other participants agreed that, through instructional supervision practices, internal supervisors were able to identify, to recommend, and to provide needed instructional facilities and equipment. Six participants agreed that through instructional supervision, teachers were kept abreast of the current development regarding curriculum and instruction.

The following statements typify some of the beliefs held by three teachers regarding instructional supervision relative to curriculum and instruction:

1. "Encourage completion of syllabus."
2. "Assist in monitoring syllabus coverage."
3. "Encourage teachers to be up-to-date with syllabus."
4. "Keep the administrator abreast with curriculum."
5. "Facilitate curriculum implementation."
6. "The headteacher is able to monitor syllabus coverage."

Synthesis and Discussion of Advantages of Existing Practices of Internal Instructional Supervision

The findings obtained from questionnaires and interviews with teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers revealed four major advantages of existing practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision: They (a) facilitated students' academic performance, (b) improved the quality of teachers and teaching, (c) enabled instructional supervisors to monitor teachers' instructional work, and (d) facilitated the implementation of curriculum and instruction. Each of these advantages is discussed in the following section.

Academic Progress

The participants believed that instructional supervision contributed to students' academic performance in the national examinations as well as to the overall results for the schools. These findings suggest that the participants had a great deal of confidence in the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision and considered them important in facilitating students' academic development. These responses also converge on the notions that the headteachers' instructional leadership was a significant factor in facilitating, improving, and promoting students' academic progress and that effective instructional leadership had, as its major foci, high expectations for students, provision of quality instruction to students, and efficient use of appropriate strategies to monitor and to evaluate students' progress.

These findings are congruent with the belief held by many of the recent writers in instructional supervision (e.g., Neuman & Simons, 2000; Robbins & Alvy, 2003) that increasing attention should be paid not only to how teachers teach students, but also to how teachers assess and evaluate students' learning.

Quality of Teaching and Teachers

Apparently, the participants concurred that internal instructional supervision practices had improved and maintained the quality of teaching in the schools and facilitated teachers' performance by (a) enlightening them about instructional methods, (b) helping them to identify their areas of weaknesses and to address them, and (c) encouraging them to prepare and to plan their teaching effectively. These findings support the views of several writers cited earlier in the literature (e.g., Chell, 1995; Drake & Roe, 1999; Wanzare & da Costa, 2000) who affirmed that instructional supervision facilitates teaching and learning by helping teachers to improve teaching and to implement new instructional ideas and by providing them with feedback on effective teaching. Researchers (e.g., Murangi, 1995) consistently reported that teachers, in general, believe that instructional supervision enables them to develop confidence in teaching, to improve subject matter content, and to use new instructional strategies.

The improvement of the quality of teachers and teaching has been a major concern to the Kenyan government in addressing the quality of education for Kenyans. According to Republic of Kenya (1999), providing quality education to increasing numbers of students and using the available resources is both a challenge and an opportunity for two major reasons. First, it is a challenge because of the inadequacy of the available government resources. And second, it is an opportunity because of the possibility of viewing education as both a service and an industry, which is marked to widen the resource mobilization base.

Monitoring Teachers' Work

It appears that the roles of instructional supervision in enabling headteachers to monitor teachers' instructional performance closely, to keep teachers on their toes daily, and to identify marginal teachers with teaching difficulties were considered important by the participants. These findings suggest that the roles of internal instructional supervision in ensuring that teachers actually performed their professional duties were at the core of participants' feelings. Several writers in the literature have also highlighted the importance of monitoring teachers' instructional performance. Less uniformly agreed on is what the specific practices of monitoring function ought to be. Various alternatives have been suggested. For example, Southworth (2002) suggested that monitoring teachers work should involve the headteachers looking at teachers' weekly plans, visiting classrooms, examining samples of pupils' work, observing the implementation of school policies, reviewing test and assessment information, and evaluating pupils, class, and school levels of performance and progress.

Curriculum and Instruction

The participants believed that through instructional supervision (a) teachers were able to implement the school curriculum more effectively by covering subject syllabuses on time, (b) headteachers were able to identify and to provide needed instructional materials, and (c) teachers were enlightened about current developments in curriculum and instruction. These findings support the notions that principals play crucial roles in facilitating curriculum coverage and implementation and that instructional leadership provides for coordination, maintenance, and improvement of instructional program (Blasé & Blasé, 1999b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Krey & Burke, 1989). Central to the success of curriculum implementation is the need for headteachers to provide teachers with materials and other necessary resources, to promote the use of new ideas and instructional methods, to devise ways of improving curriculum and instructional approaches, and to determine professional learning activities that strengthen teachers' instructional efforts and skills. According to Hallinger and Murphy (1985), curriculum and instruction is a major dimension of principals' instructional management that involves several job-related functions, such as supervising and evaluating instruction and monitoring student progress.

Problems of Existing Practices and Procedures of Internal Instructional Supervision

Teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers cited numerous problems associated with the current internal instructional supervision practices and procedures. The major problems were those associated with four themes: (a) supervision practices, (b) instructional supervisors, (c) attitudes toward supervision, and (d) feedback and follow-up.

Supervision Practices

Twenty eight participants expressed their concern regarding internal instructional supervision practices and procedures. The most commonly cited concerns included their perceived lack of consistency and the lack of professionalism. Twenty-five teachers felt that the practices of instructional supervision were marked by discrimination, subjectivity, favoritism, biases, corruption, and dishonesty. According to 16 participants, supervision practices were merely witch-hunting exercises in which instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, deliberately frustrated teachers by victimizing and intimidating them on flimsy grounds. The following comments typify the beliefs of four teachers regarding supervision practices:

1. “Fault-finding approach to supervision.”
2. “Fear for witch-hunting.”
3. “Victimization of teachers,”
4. “Headteacher uses supervision to intimidate teachers.”
5. “Malice mainly.”
6. “Headteacher harasses teachers.”

Five teachers, in a general remark, commented that internal supervision practices lacked consistency and, thus, led to confusion. Some headteachers believed that, in the main, instructional supervision practices were inappropriate, undefined, stressful, questionable, and biased. Also prevalent was a growing concern that the practices of supervision did not provide free environments for teachers to share their instructional concerns with internal supervisors and, thus, robbed teachers of their freedom.

For the majority of the participants, questionable practices and procedures of supervision that they believed teachers experience in schools had serious negative consequences. Twenty-nine teachers agreed that, because of improper supervision practices, teachers were demoralized, stressed, and embarrassed. Seven teachers annotated frustrating consequences of practices of supervision with the following comments:

1. "Supervision may cause unnecessary embarrassment."
2. "Supervision creates fear and demoralizes teachers."
3. "Supervision makes teachers feel uneasy."
4. "Supervision may result into panic."
5. "Supervision creates insecurity among teachers."
6. "Supervision kills teachers' morale."
7. "Supervision creates unnecessary pressure on teachers."

Fourteen teachers observed that, because of questionable practices of supervision, there were frequent conflicts between teachers and school administrators and, thus, frustrating working relations between teachers and internal supervisors. Eight teachers, in general remarks, concluded that teachers were generally suspicious about internal supervisors' supervisory roles and that, as a result, they had developed negative attitudes toward internal supervision.

Two headteachers agreed that the practices of instructional supervision created fear in teachers and were a source of misunderstanding, hatred, and conflicts between teachers and instructional supervisors. According to three headteachers, many teachers did not appreciate the relevance of instructional supervision practices and viewed them with suspicion, regarded them as witch-hunting, and did not take them seriously. One headteacher concluded that teachers were generally unwilling to cooperate with instructional supervisors seemingly because of inappropriate practices of supervision. Again and again, the participants indicated that they did not believe that supervision practices encouraged teachers to learn or grow professionally.

Instructional Supervisors

Another area of criticism in the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision cited by a majority of the participants was concerned with instructional supervisors. Twenty-eight participants argued that internal supervisors lacked the necessary supervisory skills, were not actually prepared to supervise teachers and teaching effectively, appeared always too busy with other administrative duties to become involved in meaningful instructional supervision, and were not confident enough to supervise teachers. The following remarks typify the beliefs of six teachers regarding internal supervisors:

1. "Internal supervisors lack skills to supervise."
2. "Lack of ability to assess teaching."
3. "Inability to supervise appropriately."
4. "Lack of qualified supervisors."
5. "Heads' inability to analyze teaching."
6. "Headteachers might not be conversant with instructional methods in all the subjects."
7. "Some supervisors are not qualified to do the work."
8. "Lack of appropriate skills in classroom observation."

Fourteen participants complained that instructional supervisors quite often walked through classrooms but rarely conducted any meaningful formal evaluation of teachers. Some participants believed that, in several cases, classroom observations, whenever they were conducted, appeared to be occasions for parading teachers' shortcomings and victimizing and intimidating them on flimsy instructional grounds and that many supervisors were unnecessarily strict with teachers. Comments regarding deliberate neglect of supervisory roles on the part of supervisors appeared to be in the minority, but by no means exceptional. Several participants noted that, as a result of the supervisors' lack of seriousness regarding instructional supervisory duties, teachers had developed negative attitudes toward internal instructional supervision and viewed it as a meaningless process; as a result, they did not take it seriously and did not trust what supervisors did. Three teachers, in expressing their disappointments with instructional supervision, wrote as follows:

> "Teachers do not accept instructional criticisms positively."
> "Most teachers don't like being supervised."
> "Some teachers don't cooperate when being supervised."

According to a few participants, a major reason for the failure of some supervisors to conduct effective supervision was their general low academic qualifications compared to those of the teachers they were expected to supervise.

Attitudes Toward Supervision

Teachers' attitudes toward internal instructional supervision practices and procedures was another concern that was considered a stumbling block to successful implementation of school-based instructional supervision. Thirty-nine participants, in general, agreed that teachers had developed negative attitudes toward supervision practices. Seven participants explained that many teachers viewed instructional supervision practices as fault-finding exercises aimed at catching teachers doing wrong. As one teacher commented:

> I would imagine it is just the attitude that perhaps if a headteacher comes to my class, he is on a fault-finding mission, which may not be the case. The attitude of many teachers, I believe, is that if I see the headteacher coming into my class, I see the head of department coming to sit in my lesson, then they want to corner me somehow. This attitude has to be corrected.

Five headteachers stated that, because of teachers' negativity toward supervision practices, some teachers were fearful of supervision, resisted being supervised by their headteachers, and regarded the supervision process as a worthless exercise. Some headteachers, in their general remarks about this negativity, wrote as follows:

1. "Some teachers have negative attitude toward instructional supervision."
2. "Resentment by teachers."
3. "Teachers develop fear for instructional supervision."
4. "Teachers resist instructional supervision."
5. "Some teachers are not very comfortable with instructional supervision, especially the lazy ones."
6. "Teachers feel uncomfortable with instructional supervisors."

Supporting these views, an education officer echoed, "General negative attitudes of teachers towards supervision. Some take it as witch-hunting and, as a result, the acceptability of internal supervision by teachers is a problem."

Four headteachers indicated that many veteran teachers, especially, did not recognize instructional supervision as part of their professional career; consequently, they were not committed to it and saw it as a waste of time. Two headteachers specifically noted that many teachers, especially the lazy ones, had developed negative attitudes toward checking the tools of work, such as lesson notes, schemes of work, and records of work covered; as a result, they tended to gang up against their headteachers and resisted any attempts by the headteachers to collect and to examine their artifacts of teaching. As one deputy headteacher noted:

> Again the attitude of the teachers. I don't know whether there is an artificial gap between the head and teachers. Teachers normally feel that the head is someone there, so whatever comes it is to us, so it is sort of ganging; and always they don't receive it as individuals working in an organization being supervised individually by their headteachers.

Ten participants attributed teachers' negative attitudes toward supervision to the lack of clarification regarding the purpose of instructional supervision. Others suggested that some internal supervisors, especially headteachers, appeared to have hidden agendas in their supervisory practices, which teachers did not trust.

Feedback and Follow-Up

Another area in which the participants were unhappy concerned feedback and follow-up. Eleven participants regretted the lack of feedback and follow-up on matters regarding internal instructional supervision, especially feedback and follow-up based on problems identified during supervision. Seven teachers specifically concurred that feedback and follow-up regarding teachers' essential tools of work, such as lesson plans and lesson notes, were not included in the practices and procedures of instructional supervision. Others wondered why internal instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, did not provide teachers with written comments relevant to supervision of teaching and learning. One teacher, in a general remark, lamented, "Lack of follow-up regarding preparation by teachers of schemes, record of work covered." Another teacher added, "Once teachers have been supervised by headteacher, by whatever practice, no supervisory reports are made, not at the school level. Maybe the headteacher would have his or her own reports." In addition, two education officers echoed their disappointment on the issue when they noted that there were no specific forms designed for reporting supervisory feedback to teachers.

Synthesis and Discussion of Problems of Existing Practices and Procedures of Internal Instructional Supervision

The findings obtained from questionnaire and interview data revealed six major problems in the existing practices of internal instructional supervision: (a) lack of consistency and professionalism; (b) unprofessional conduct of instructional supervisors and their general lack of supervisory competence; (c) teachers' persistent negativity toward supervision practices; and (d) lack of feedback and follow-up on matters regarding instructional supervision. Each of the problems is discussed in the following section.

Supervision Practices

The findings suggest that the participants had no confidence in supervision practices because they were inconsistent, biased, and subjective and generally stressed and frustrated teachers. These findings are congruent with the following notions in the literature on teacher supervision (e.g., Tsui, 1995): (a) Supervision is a highly stressful experience for both teachers and supervisors; (b) the experience of being supervised is even more stressful for teachers, especially when supervisors have "economic power" over them in the sense that their professional growth depends on the approval of their supervisors; (c) teachers have the tendency to regard comments and suggestions made by their supervisors as criticisms rather than alternatives for them to consider; and (d) teachers tend to justify their own classroom practices rather than keep an open mind about alternatives, especially from their supervisors.

Instructional Supervisors

Instructional supervisors appeared to be ill-prepared for supervision, rarely conducted meaningful supervision, and generally preoccupied themselves with other non-instructional responsibilities, to the extent that they failed to provide adequate professional help to teachers. Taken together, these problems appeared to be the center of continued conflict and poor relations between teachers and their internal instructional supervisors.

These findings are congruent with reports from similar studies elsewhere that indicate teachers are generally negative about formal supervision and evaluation practices mainly because of questionable integrity of supervisors. For example, Moore (1990), in reflecting on her study that examined work in schools from the perspectives of teachers in the US, reported that the teachers studied criticized formal supervision and evaluation practices, observing that they were effective for dismissal but not for improvement, that supervisors were rarely prepared to offer genuinely useful advice, and that the procedures invariably took precedence over the content of supervision and virtually provided no opportunity for learning. Furthermore, the overwhelming majority of the teachers studied doubted that their supervisors could adequately supervise their work, even after rigorous training in observation and assessment techniques.

Attitudes Toward Supervision

The participants appeared to regard teachers' attitudes toward instructional supervision as an important factor in successful supervision of instruction. Teachers' negative attitudes toward supervision as perceived by the participants are not surprising because the literature and research have consistently indicated that teachers exhibit attributes ranging from apathy to dislike with respect to supervision. For example, Lunenburg (1995) observed that most teachers do not like to be evaluated and never find evaluation helpful to them professionally. Furthermore, Kellough's (1990) study revealed that the principals studied cited teachers' attitudes as one of the deterrents to instructional supervision. Many principals in this study also reported that they had been frustrated by teachers' unwillingness to change what they had always done and by their reluctance to become involved in instructional design and implementation. These observations converge on the notion that tensions between teachers and supervisors have persisted over the years. Blumberg (1980; as cited in Oliva & Pawlas, 2001) described tensions between supervisors and teachers as a "private cold war" (p. 14).

Several writers (e.g., Lunenburg, 1995; Tanner & Tanner, 1987) have attributed teachers' negative feelings toward supervision and evaluation to the kind of supervision they received and the manner in which supervisory practices have been conducted. To Kosmoski (1997), teachers' lack of support for supervision is a result of supervisors' perceived hidden agenda and selfish motives, whereby they view supervision as a vehicle for personal glorification and advancement.

Feedback and Follow-Up

The participants apparently believed that meaningful feedback and follow-up support with respect to instructional supervision were not provided to teachers, and, consequently, they were not assisted adequately. The findings are consistent with those of Rabideau (1993), who examined teachers' satisfaction with instructional supervision and related key variables in the state of Illinois, US. Over half of the teachers in this study reported that they had limited opportunity for feedback on their teaching performance.

Legitimizing the voices of the participants in expressing their concerns about the lack of supervisory feedback and follow-up cannot be overemphasized. The instructional supervision literature is replete with writings highly suggestive of the notion that effective supervision practices are those that incorporate feedback and follow-up in the programs. For example, Siens and Ebmeier (1996) reiterated that, for teachers to improve their classroom instruction, they need feedback that encourages them to question, appraise, reflect, and adopt their current instructional practices.

Suggested Changes in Practices of Internal Instructional Supervision

Teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers proposed numerous changes in the current practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision. The suggested changes are those associated with seven major themes: (a) supervision practices, (b) instructional supervisors, (c) attitude toward supervision, (d) feedback and follow-up, (e) collaboration and teamwork, (f) foci of supervision, and (g) purposes of supervision.

Supervision Practices

A substantial number of participants made suggestions with respect to the practices of internal instructional supervision. The suggestions have been grouped into two subthemes: classroom observation and student involvement in supervision.

Classroom Observation

Eight participants specifically made suggestions regarding classroom observation. They suggested a need for frequent classroom observation, especially by headteachers and colleague teachers. A few participants proposed that headteachers, as internal instructional supervisors, should design workable modalities regarding classroom observation and that this supervisory practice should be effected whenever instructional problems arise in the classroom or in circumstances where a teacher appears to be ineffective in the classroom. As one teacher recommended, “It would be good if a headteacher visits teachers in their classrooms to see how they teach because some teachers go into their classrooms only to tell students irrelevant stories about their past personal experiences at their universities.”

One deputy headteacher, in advocating for classroom observation, expressed the need to explain to all the key stakeholders, such as students and teachers, the purpose of classroom observation to avoid potential confusion, especially among students who may feel that the headteacher involved in this practices is on a fault-finding mission. This deputy headteacher commented as follows:

> Classroom visitation by headteacher would be very good and beneficial if used carefully; could be employed so long as students and teachers understand the reasons behind the practice. But has potential problem of breeding problems if misinterpreted. The reason for potential problem is that students may feel that the head is following teachers to find out if they teach well.

One teacher recommended a need to establish beyond any reasonable doubt that there is an actual need for classroom observation. This teacher stated, "We need to be absolutely convinced that there is a need for headteachers to actually visit teachers in their classrooms to see how they teach. We don't want situations where headteachers embarrass teachers before their pupils."

Student Involvement

Fifteen participants focused their suggestions specifically on student involvement in internal instructional supervision. Some of the participants suggested a need for students to be involved in the practices and procedures of supervision of instruction and proposed several ways in which students could participate in supervision exercises. The most frequently cited strategies for student involvement included allowing students to comment about their teachers' instructional effectiveness using a specially designed evaluation form and interviewing students about the performance of their teachers. Commenting on this issue, one teacher stated, "Use of rating forms by students to rate teachers is a good idea and should be encouraged. But the possibility of negative reactions from teachers cannot be ruled out."

One deputy headteacher suggested that students would be a good source of feedback to school administration regarding teachers who miss classes and that such feedback should be given verbally. This deputy headteacher stated:

> I think students should be allowed to give some feedback to the administration because sometimes students have genuine complaints. You find a teacher who does not go to class in time. So if you have that feedback you can also check the teacher and find out, for example, today you had a double lesson at this time, you taught only one. I think feedback from students should just be verbal because when it is written—maybe you have a suggestions box—somebody can put information which is not correct. The role of class monitors is very crucial in this regard.

One teacher suggested that students should be given the opportunity to report, especially to their class teachers, the extent to which course contents have been covered by the various subject teachers. However, one teacher cautioned that some confidentiality should be observed regarding the involvement of students in addressing teachers' shortcomings and that headteachers should not discuss teachers' weaknesses openly with students because doing so would most likely demoralize the teachers.

Instructional Supervisors

Another area that received a great deal of attention from many of the participants was concerned with instructional supervisors. Suggestions were made regarding the personnel that participants would with to see as internal instructional supervisors. The most frequently cited individuals in this regard included headteachers and heads of departments.

Headteachers

Ten participants suggested that headteachers should take the leading role in internal instructional supervision. They proposed that headteachers, as instructional supervisors, should (a) endeavor to develop interest in the major subjects being taught at secondary school level, (b) teach a few lessons, (c) allow themselves to be supervised by other internal supervisors, (d) be more strict on supervision, (e) delegate supervisory duties accordingly, (f) be competent in their teaching subjects, (g) be role models, (h) encourage teachers to observe their lessons as a way of modeling, and (i) be present in school most of the time to offer adequate supervision. In several cases, the headteacher was described variously as "inspector on the ground" and "teacher number one."

However, one teacher was concerned about the possibility of headteachers being biased in their practices of supervision and, instead, proposed supervision by a panel of supervisors consisting of individuals drawn from among experienced teachers and other internal supervisors. This teacher commented as follows:

> The headteacher should not be let to make overall judgments on teachers alone. This is because they may tend to be biased, especially when it comes to recommending teachers for promotions. There should be a panel concerned with internal supervision. This panel should include heads of departments and teachers.

Another teacher was particularly concerned about the excessive powers bestowed upon headteachers by the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology. This teacher suggested that the excessive powers of the headteachers, especially regarding supervision for summative purposes, be reduced.

Heads of Departments

Fourteen participants proposed that matters regarding internal instructional supervision be delegated to heads of departments who are normally in close contact with fellow teachers. As one teacher remarked:

> Given the fact that heads of departments are constantly in contact with fellow teachers and they teach the same subjects with teachers, they are able to understand the teachers better. They can also develop rapport that would enable them to supervise subject teachers better than the headteacher. Heads of departments should be more involved in internal instructional supervision because the headteachers are mostly busy with other administrative duties.

In addition to the two types of individuals cited above as potential internal instructional supervisors, a few participants concurred that deputy headteachers, subject teachers, and students should be involved in instructional supervision. And, finally, a substantial number of participants proposed some strategies to facilitate the work of internal instructional supervisors. The most commonly cited possibilities included (a) spelling out clearly the supervisory functions of internal instructional supervisors; (b) encouraging internal instructional supervisors, especially headteachers and their deputies, to be exemplary and transparent in their supervisory roles and as policy implementers in order to be taken seriously and to be understood better by teachers; (c) encouraging whoever supervises to be knowledgeable about supervision and to observe professionalism in the process of supervision; (d) providing internal supervisors, especially the headteachers, with the necessary incentives—for example, extra allowances—to perform their instructional supervisory role; and (e) facilitating supervision and assessment of internal instructional supervisors themselves.

Attitudes Toward Supervision

Another area in which the participants expressed a desire for change was concerned with teachers' attitudes toward instructional supervision. A majority of participants, although acknowledging the prevalence of teachers' negativity toward supervision of instruction, advocated for a change in this attitude to facilitate the implementation of supervision programs in the schools.

Several strategies toward this change of attitude were proposed by some teachers: (a) encouraging teachers to carry out their instructional duties well, (b) facilitating open discussions between teachers and internal instructional supervisors, (c) educating teachers about instructional supervision practices, and (d) encouraging teachers to regard instructional supervision as a normal administrative procedure and as one of the means through which teacher performance can be upgraded. Advocating for change relative to teachers' negative attitude, one teacher commented as follows:

> I would say that teachers should regard instructional supervision as a normal administrative procedure, not necessarily to find faults. They should come to regard it as one of the means through which the headteacher, the hod, can upgrade the performance of teachers.

Five headteacher interviewees, in addressing the problem of teachers' negativity toward instructional supervision, especially classroom visitation, advised school heads to (a) endeavor to start their classroom observations with smart teachers before moving onto weak ones, (b) encourage deputy headteachers and other teachers to visit their classrooms to how they teach, (c) encourage and to praise teachers for a job well done as a way of motivating them, (d) be enlightened about instructional supervision, and (e) encourage teachers to consider the process of supervision as being normal, with a view to their developing positive attitudes toward internal instructional supervision.

Feedback and Follow-Up

Another area in which participants desired a change was concerned with feedback and follow-up. A few participants expressed a need to provide teachers with feedback, especially written reports on matters regarding supervision of instruction. Others specifically advocated for constructive feedback on teaching strategies and techniques, especially after classroom visits by the headteachers. Commenting on this issue, one teacher suggested:

> Teachers need to be told the outcome of such internal assessment because teachers most likely might not be conversant with the new instructional techniques and methods. Therefore, reports on internal instructional supervision should be given to individual teachers as feedback on instructional concerns;

Also prevalent was the need to encourage supervisors to share and to discuss, on a one-to-one basis with teachers, findings from supervision. Further suggestions echoed by a few participants were concerned with the need to make appropriate and immediate follow-ups on supervisory matters.

Collaboration and Team Work

Another area in which the participants felt a need for change was concerned with collaboration. In effect, they agreed that any successful implementation of instructional supervision program in the schools is dependent upon collaboration and team work among the key stakeholders. For example, some participants spoke about shared decision making between internal instructional supervisors and teachers regarding the purposes of supervision and the roles of the various individuals in supervision process. Other participants shared the views that teachers' input into matters regarding supervision of instruction should be encouraged, that heads of departments, especially, should endeavor to facilitate collaboration between teachers and internal instructional supervisors, and that all teachers and internal supervisors should work as a team. One education officer, in a general remark, agreed: "Teachers and heads working together on instructional supervision; success of schools depends on teamwork involving determination of duties; comradeship very important."

Six teachers and one headteacher highlighted the ingredients of collaboration that they would like to be established in the schools: (a) a harmonious, close working relationship; (b) an atmosphere of freedom of expression; (c) concern for each other, (d) proper channels of communication; and (e) a good understanding between teachers and headteachers.

Foci of Supervision

Twelve participants expressed a need for change with respect to the foci of instructional supervision, especially classroom observation. In general, the participants expressed a need to define clearly the foci of instructional supervision practices and procedures. The most frequently mentioned foci as suitable for inclusion in the practices of supervision were teachers' methods and techniques of presentation, teacher-learner relationship, and teachers' methods of motivating students.

Purposes of Supervision

Another area of need that received a great deal of attention from some of the participants was concerned with purposes of internal instructional supervision. The participants, in general, expressed a strong need to explain clearly, especially to teachers and to instructional supervisors, the purposes served by instructional supervision. Some participants felt that it was the responsibility of headteachers to explain to their staff the purposes of supervision of instruction. Three teachers, in a general remark about the purposes of supervision, wrote as follows: "The headteacher should be free and explain to his staff the importance of instructional supervision," "The headteacher should explain the need for supervision," and "Teachers should be given adequate information about internal supervision." One teacher suggested that the major purpose of internal instructional supervision should be to improve teaching and learning. Another teacher was of the view that results from supervision should not be used to make decisions regarding promotions and other rewards.

Synthesis and Discussion of Suggested Changes in Practices of Internal Instructional Supervision

The findings obtained from questionnaires and interview data reveal the following major suggested changes in the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision: (a) facilitating instructional supervision via observing teachers in their classrooms frequently and allowing students to comment about their teachers' instructional effectiveness; (b) encouraging headteachers and heads of departments to take active roles in supervision of instruction; (c) changing teachers' negative attitudes toward instructional supervision; (d) encouraging headteachers to become involved in meaningful classroom teaching; (e) providing feedback and follow-up support to teachers on matters regarding instructional supervision; (f) facilitating collaboration and team work; and (g) defining the purposes and foci of internal instructional supervision.

Each of these suggested changes is discussed in the following section.

Supervision Practices

The participants believed that classroom observation by internal supervisors, such as headteachers and colleague teachers, should be a major means of addressing teachers' instructional concerns and that all the stakeholders in the school, including students, should be educated about this supervisory practice to avoid potential confusion.

These findings are congruent with the Kenyan Ministry of Education's (1987) belief that the headteacher, as the immediate inspector of the school, should be involved in checking teaching standards by actual visits to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers. Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1998), in highlighting the responsibilities and duties of the headteacher, shared the same view that the headteacher should be involved in visiting, observing, and keeping a record of learning sessions in classrooms, laboratories, and workshops. And, elsewhere, Southworth (2002) singled out classroom observation as one of the headteacher's duties associated with monitoring teachers' work.

The benefits of in-class observation have been highlighted in the literature. For example, Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1998), in crediting the works of Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987), Baner (1986), Chunn (1985), Garman (1986), and Russell and Spafferd (1986), noted that classroom observation is a vital way to refine and to expand instructional repertoire; and, when the data or the observation instrument is consistent with what the teacher and observer agreed to focus on and later discuss, professional growth is promoted.

The participants appeared to be convinced that examining teachers' artifacts of teaching, such as lesson plans and lesson notes, should be a viable alternative strategy for monitoring teachers' level of preparedness for classroom teaching. This finding is congruent with the views of several writers in the literature regarding teachers' artifacts of teaching. For example, Hill (1990) and Wanzare (2002) observed that an analysis of teaching artifacts, such as lesson plans and lesson notes, is an important process of collecting information about teachers. Similarly, Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1998) and Ministry of Education (1987) underscored the importance of examining teachers' artifacts of teaching when they recommended that the headteacher should check periodically the teaching standards by referring to the artifacts of teaching, such as schemes of work, lesson notes, records of work done, pupils' exercise books, projects, practical work, and assignment scripts, to ensure regular making and systematic use in guiding learning.

It appears that the involvement of students in instructional supervision by allowing them to give their views of teacher effectiveness through questionnaires and interviews would be a viable means of providing feedback to teachers regarding their classroom teaching. This finding is consistent with recent writings relating to students' feedback on teacher effectiveness (e.g., Glatthorn, 1990; Marczely, 2001; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001) that (a) student surveys can be a vital source of information for classroom teachers, (b) student feedback on teacher performance can be very useful and tend to be both valid and reliable, (c) students can provide insights into the instruction that cannot be gained otherwise, (d) student evaluations of teachers and teaching provide an important source of data about the effectiveness of teaching, and (e) students can provide valuable insights into the course, the instruction, and the instructor.

Instructional Supervisors

The participants concurred that headteachers and heads of departments would be the most suitable internal instructional supervisors. The involvement of headteachers, deputy headteachers, heads of departments, peer teachers, and teachers themselves in instructional supervision has been well documented in the literature. For example, Glickman et al. (2001), Chell (1995), and Williams (2000) noted that the school principal is the chief instructional leader of the school whose responsibility includes, among others, supervising and evaluating teachers and managing curriculum and instruction. These findings are correspondingly consistent with Scott's (2001) findings, which revealed that the principal was singled out by all teachers studied as the primary individual responsible for supervising them.

However, because the principal is overburdened with other responsibilities, it is important that the principal share supervisory roles with other personnel in the school. Wanzare and da Costa (2001), in crediting the works of Acheson and Smith (1986) and Hoerr (1996), shared the view that, although the school principal is ultimately responsible for ensuring the quality of teaching and learning in the school, it is necessary and appropriate for the principal to share instructional leadership responsibilities with other individuals in the school, such as departmental heads, colleague teachers, and the vice-principal.

To facilitate the work of internal instructional supervisors, the participants put a great deal of emphasis on clarifying supervisory roles, encouraging transparency and professionalism among supervisors, developing ways to motivate supervisors, and ensuring quality supervision by assessing supervisor performance.

Attitude Toward Supervision

The participants concurred that changing teachers' negative attitudes toward supervision of instruction would enable teachers to view supervision as being beneficial to them, thus facilitating their receptivity to supervision practices and their overall job satisfaction. This finding concurs with one of Kenya's specific goals of teacher education under the 8-4-4 system of education; namely, to develop basic theoretical and practical knowledge about the teaching profession so that the teachers' attitudes and abilities can be turned towards professional commitment and competence (Lusweti, 1993).

The literature has consistently shown that successful supervision must confront negative attitudes toward the practice of supervision (Kosmoski, 1997). Similarly, Hilo's (1987) study underscored the need for supervisors to provide teachers with special preparatory training programs in order to increase their self-confidence when supervisors enter their classes during the teaching process.

Several strategies to change teachers' negative attitudes to being supervised have been proposed: (a) cooperating with teachers by involving them in decision making and in planning supervision (Seyfarth & Nowinski, 1987); (b) raising teacher satisfaction through effective listening behaviors, such as showing interest and warmth, paraphrasing content and reflecting feelings, clarifying thoughts as necessary, and summarizing (Taylor, Cook, Green, & Rogers, 1988); (c) developing trust between teachers and supervisors (Fenton, 1989; as cited in Gray, McLaughlin & Bialozor, 1992; Taylor et al., 1988) and employing a multidimensional approach to supervision (Gray et al., 1992); and (e) facilitating informal supervision; for example, through MBWA (Andrews & Knight, 1987; Glatthorn, 1987).

Feedback and Follow-Up

The participants believed that feedback and follow-up support given to teachers, especially through shared discussions, will facilitate their awareness about their instructional performance, techniques, and methods. Consistent with these findings are reports from other similar studies. For example, Ovando and Harris (1993), in reflecting on teachers' responses and the results of their study, cited earlier in this chapter, observed that "teachers are interested in feedback and constructive criticism which are key components of formative evaluation" (p. 309). More recently, Mo et al. (1998), in their study designed to examine the effectiveness of teacher appraisal programs as perceived by teachers in Hong Kong's self-managing secondary schools participating in the School Management Initiative Scheme (SMI), underscored the need to provide frequently effective feedback to teachers.

Collaboration and Team Work

The participants advocated for a collaborative form of instructional supervision in which teachers and headteachers work as a team to devise strategies for improving teacher performance for the benefit of students. According to Gray et al. (1992), collaborative supervision is "a move toward recognition of the teacher as a competent and valued professional, and a move a way from the mere concern with the teacher's classroom behavior" (p. 18). The literature (e.g., Robbins & Alvy, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002) consistently indicated that (a) the focus of collaborative work must be its impact on the students; (b) collaborative partners must engage in work that ultimately leads to a heightened awareness of the conditions necessary for learning to occur; (c) in a collaborative workplace focused on student learning, all staff (teachers, headteachers, student) would assume responsibility for the professional welfare and growth of students and teachers; (d) when teachers work and learn collaboratively, teaching improves; better teaching means improved student learning; and (e) supervisors should provide systems of supervision that make sense to teachers, of which teachers will want to be a part, and that will facilitate teacher effectiveness in the classroom.

Several persistent findings related to supervision of instruction indicate that teacher-supervisor collaboration is needed and is necessary to facilitate instructional improvement. For example, Hilo's (1987) study of instructional supervisory practices in Nablus secondary schools in the West Bank, cited earlier, recommended a need for teacher involvement in the leadership and decision-making processes in schools, especially in those supervisory activities concerned with improving teaching strategies, planning units, and selecting instructional materials. And, more recently, Mohammed (1991), in a study that investigated what beliefs and feelings, attitudes, and knowledge of effective supervision existed from the perceptions of principals from Edmonton Catholic schools, Edmonton, Alberta, underscored the need for teacher and supervisor collaboration and teachers' active involvement in supervisory decision-making processes.

Foci of Supervision

The participants regarded defining the foci of instructional supervision practices, such as classroom observation, as being critical to the success of supervision process. Furthermore, they concurred that classroom observation, in particular, would be a viable supervisory practice for gathering evidence on learning, on teacher behavior, and on the teaching-learning process. In writing about teacher evaluation practices, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) and Wanzare (2002) affirmed that classroom observation has been one of the most practical and commonly used processes of obtaining data on instruction, that the observation visit is usually preceded by a pre-conference, and that the foci of this supervisory practice may vary from one observer to another, depending on the objectives set during the pre-conference.

Agreement on the three foci of classroom observation advocated for by the participants—teaching methods, teacher-student relationship, and ways of motivating students—was shared by several writers in the literature. For example, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) commented that, in supervision for authentic student learning, the supervisor's role is to focus on the teacher's classroom efforts to motivate students to learn; that is, this involves what the teacher does to bring students to the activity of learning. Toward this end, they argued, the teacher may cajole, persuade, entice, threaten, encourage, support, stimulate, invite, tease, explain, tell interesting stories, describe, demonstrate, suggest, or nudge. The notion of the teacher-learner relationship supports the human relations view of supervision (Kosmoski, 1997; Wilson & Thacker, 1999; as cited in Wanzare, 2002) in which supervision centers on the human beings involved in the process. The supervisor's role in human relations supervision focuses on human relationship with students, parents, and other members of staff.

In addition, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), supervision that focuses on teaching methods and strategies supports the clinical view of supervision, the purpose of which is to help teachers to modify existing patterns of teaching in ways that make sense to them and support agreed-upon content or teaching standards.

Purposes of Supervision

The participants shared the view that teachers and supervisors should be enlightened about the intended purposes of supervision practices and procedures. They also appeared to believe that defining the purposes of instructional supervision should be the instructional supervisors' responsibility. Overall, these findings suggest that establishing clearly defined purposes of supervision is an important prerequisite for successful supervision programs and that school principals have an important role to play in enlightening teachers about the intended purposes. That supervision serves to improve teaching and learning has been supported widely in the literature. For example, Tanner and Tanner (1987) observed that the major emphasis of supervision should be on improving the quality of teaching and learning. Also, Findley and Findley (1992) affirmed that supervision fosters both instructional improvement through student achievement and organizational maintenance through goal-directed activity. Again and again, the message consistently being reinforced is that instructional improvement is the core of supervision. According to Hoy and Forsyth (1986):

> The improvement of instruction is a long-term, continuous process. The goal of the supervisor is not simply to solve an immediate problem but rather to study the processes of teaching and learning as part of an ongoing system of evaluation and experimentation. Diagnosis, analysis, problem solving, innovation, and change are supervisory imperatives. (pp. 10-11)

Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the study regarding advantages, problems, and suggested changes for effectiveness in practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision. The results indicate that teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers agreed, in general, that the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision have numerous advantages. For example, the practices facilitate students' academic performance, improve the quality of teachers and teaching enabled instructional supervisors to monitor teachers' instructional work, and foster a spirit of collaboration and team work. However, the findings of the study also reveal many problems associated with practices of instructional supervision, such as lack of consistency and professionalism; questionable supervisor behaviors; teachers' general negativity toward supervision of instruction; and lack of feedback and follow-up support on matters regarding instructional supervision.

Finally, the following are some of the proposed changes for effective practices and procedures of instructional supervision based on the findings of the study: (a) facilitating classroom observation and student involvement in supervision of instruction; (b) encouraging supervision by headteachers and heads of departments; (c) facilitating collaboration and team work between teachers and instructional supervisors; (d) ensuring a great deal of professionalism in supervision practices; and (e) defining the purposes and foci of internal instructional supervision. Appendix E, Table 6.1 summarizes the major problems associated with the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision identified in this study and the corresponding suggested changes for improvement.

In chapter 7, a summary, conclusions, and recommendations are provided.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND PERSONAL REFLECTIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study, a review of the findings of the study, responses to the research questions, and the conclusions reached in the study. Also included in this chapter are recommendations for practice, for policy, and for further research.

Summary of the Study

This section reviews the purpose of the study, the major research areas, the research methodology, the theoretical framework, data collection and analysis procedures, and the major findings of the study.

Purpose

This study was concerned with the lack of information regarding internal instructional supervision practices and procedures as well as staff development in Kenyan public secondary schools, with specific attention paid to the perceptions of instructional supervision and staff development held by teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools from the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and senior government education officers.

Major Research Areas

The study focused on specific questions concerning the following major areas:

1. the purposes of internal instructional supervision,
2. the foci of internal instructional supervision,
3. the practices of internal instructional supervision,
4. the documents and guidelines on internal instructional supervision provided by the Ministry of Education,
5. the actual and needed skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors,
6. the existence and adequacy of staff development programs for teachers and headteachers,
7. the major advantages of internal instructional supervision,
8. the problems and issues associated with internal instructional supervision,
9. the degree of satisfaction with current internal instructional supervision practices and procedures,
10. the main barriers to staff development for teachers and headteachers,
11. the changes needed to improve internal instructional supervision and staff development, and
12. the potential involvement of deputy headteachers, department heads, and subject heads in assisting headteachers to carry out internal instructional supervision.

The similarities and differences in the perceptions and preferences of teachers, headteachers, and education officers about supervision and staff development practices were also explored in the study.

Research Methodology

A survey was used in the study to gather information from teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers regarding internal instructional supervision practices and procedures. The collection for this study included survey of opinions through mailed questionnaires and interviews.

Sample

A sample of 200 public secondary schools was selected randomly to participate in the study. Because participation was voluntary, some schools chose not to participate, and usable data were received from 100 schools (4.3%). The sample consisted of 136 teachers and 56 headteachers surveyed through questionnaires and 5 teachers, 5 headteachers, and 11 senior government education officers surveyed through interviews, for a total of 213 participants.

Theoretical Framework

The study began with a theoretical framework for conceptualizing instructional supervision that was developed from the theoretical frameworks mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, as well as from the works of West and Bollington (1990), Krey and Burke (1989), Cousins (1995), and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002).

The initial framework helped me to lay out my own orientation in the study and provided me with direction regarding high priority areas to address in my study; for example, the purposes of instructional supervision and the overall outcomes of instructional supervision. Using this framework, I gathered data for the study regarding internal instructional supervision and staff development in Kenyan public secondary schools. However, this framework had several shortcomings. For example, it was overloaded with information , especially regarding school contexts of instructional supervision; and it did not consider the Kenyan contexts of instructional supervision and staff development.

I did not study all of the aspects indicated in the tentative framework—for example, school motto, objectives, developmental stages, values, and vision—because these were beyond the scope of this current study. Similarly, I did not explore all the relationships suggested in the framework, such as student-teacher relationship, influence of support staff on instructional supervision, teacher-teacher interactions, and external community support to instructional supervision.

Data Collection Procedures

Before research data were collected, I applied for a research permit from the Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, which is responsible for reviewing applications to conduct research in Kenya. Once the approval to conduct the research had been given, I sent letters to the headteachers and teachers of the schools in the sample and to senior government education officers, informing them of the timeline during which I intended to conduct the study. For this study, two similar, semi-structured questionnaires—"Questionnaire for Headteachers" and "Questionnaire For Teachers"—were used. The first part of the study included a survey of opinions through questionnaires that were distributed to the participants—200 headteachers and 200 teachers—who were sampled randomly.

The second part of the study was qualitative, involving in-depth interviews conducted with 21 participants, who included 5 teachers, 5 headteachers/deputy headteachers, and 11 senior government education officers.

Data Treatment and Analysis

The data were analyzed in two major ways: (a) by using descriptive statistics (e.g., percentages, relative frequencies, means, medians, and standard deviations) to describe the raw data based on semistructured questions in the questionnaires, and (b) by using content analysis in which qualitative data, based on interviews and open-ended responses from the questionnaires, were sorted into appropriate categories according to the purpose of the study and the research questions.

Survey Returns

Of the 200 teachers surveyed, 136 returned the surveys, which represents a 68% return rate for teachers. Of the 200 headteachers surveyed, 56 returned the surveys, a 28% return rate for headteachers.

Major Findings of the Study

The major findings of the study were grouped into 12 headings relating to specific research question areas of the study (see Appendixes B and C): (a) the purposes of internal instructional supervision, (b) foci of internal instructional supervision, (c) practices of internal instructional supervision, (d) documents and guidelines on internal instructional supervision, (e) skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors, (f) staff development programs for teachers and headteachers, (g) advantages of existing internal instructional supervision practices, (h) problems and issues associated with internal instructional supervision, (i) degree of satisfaction with current internal instructional supervision practices and procedures, (j) barriers to staff development for teachers and headteachers, (k) suggested changes toward the improvement of internal instructional supervision and staff development, and (l) types of personnel involved in internal instructional supervision. The 12 groups of findings are summarized below.

1. Purposes of internal instructional supervision. The majority of teachers and headteachers agreed that internal instructional supervision in the schools served two major purposes: to give the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching effectiveness and to give the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching. They also agreed that "great" or "very great" importance was attached to these two purposes in internal instructional supervision. Further to this, the following were perceived as the major purposes of internal instructional supervision in the schools: These were to: (a) enhance student performance; (b) ensure that teachers perform their instructional duties as mandated by the higher authorities; and (c) facilitate curriculum implementation.

2. Foci of internal instructional supervision. The following three major foci of internal instructional supervision received the highest ranking in both existing and preferred extent of examination as perceived by teachers and headteachers: (a) availability of properly-organized pupils' progress records, (b) availability of up-to-date weekly records of work covered, and (c) teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations.

Furthermore, the following were perceived as the major foci of the existing internal instructional supervision practices in the schools studied: (a) teacher's attendance to scheduled lessons, (b) teacher's participation in extracurricular and curricular activities, (c) teacher-student interaction, (d) teacher's effectiveness in the classroom, (e) teacher's level of preparedness, (f) teacher's methods of assessment of pupil's work, (g) quality of papers set by the teacher, (h) teacher's presence in the school, and (i) syllabus coverage by the teacher.

3. Practices of internal instructional supervision. Recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers received high ranking in both existing and preferred supervisory practices in the schools as perceived by teachers and headteachers. Also, obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews received relatively low ranking in both existing and preferred extent of examination as perceived by teachers and headteachers and was also considered inappropriate by some of the teachers and senior government education officers interviewed.

The following were perceived to be the major practices of internal instructional supervision in the schools: (a) checking teachers' professional tools of work or artifacts of teaching, such as schemes of work, records of work covered, lesson notes, lesson plans, lesson-focus books, mark books, daily preparation books, and test papers; (b) examining students' exercise books; (c) using students to obtain information about teachers; (d) holding conferences with teachers; (e) observing teachers in their classrooms; and (f) supervising by walking around.

4. Documents and guidelines on internal instructional supervision. The majority of teachers and headteachers viewed two documents as having great or high influence on internal instructional supervision: the TSC Code of Regulations and the policy memos from the Provincial Director of Education. Similarly, some interviewees considered the *Heads' Manual* a relevant document to internal instructional supervision. A substantial number of teachers and headteachers, in general, regarded two documents as having least influence in internal instructional supervision: the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents and documents from Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs).

Furthermore, the majority of teachers and headteachers agreed that a great deal of importance was attached to two aspects, schemes of work and records of work done, in the *Heads' Manual* as existing and preferred aspects, whereas the least importance was attached to pupils' exercise books and actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers. Additionally, teachers and headteachers, in general, were congruent in recommending that more importance should be attached to all of the aspects in the *Heads' Manual* listed in the instruments. However, in general, the majority of the interview participants appeared unaware of the existence of government documents relevant to internal instructional supervision.

5. Skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors. Teachers and headteachers gave the highest ranking in terms of importance in the headteacher's instructional role and the need for further preparation of the headteacher two skills: skills in building upon strengths of staff members and skills in holding one-to-one conferences. Instructional problem-solving skills ranked highest in terms of need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers and headteachers, and the ability to communicate effectively ranked highest in order of importance in the headteacher's supervisory role and in terms of further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers and headteachers.

The following were perceived as the major desired skills and attributes of internal instructional supervisors: (a) ability to lead by example, (b) high integrity, (c) knowledge about delegation, (d) knowledge about public relations, (e) supervisory skills, and (f) competence in teaching subjects. In addition, according to the beliefs held by some of the education officers interviewed, headteachers, as instructional supervisors, should be qualified and experienced teachers.

6. Staff development programs for teachers and headteachers. Teachers and headteachers had participated in staff development programs organized by the following institutions: (a) the Kenya national Examinations Council (KNEC), (b) the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE), (c) the Kenya Union of Teachers (KNUT), and (d) the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI). Also, a substantial number of teachers and headteachers had participated in workshops coordinated by District Education Officers (DEOs) and Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs). Furthermore, a few teachers and headteachers had participated in the British Council and the Kenya Secondary School Heads' Association (KSSHA) workshops, as well as in workshops organized by the Inspectorate, a wing of the Ministry of Education, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

Teachers and headteachers had been involved in in-service education programs in instructional supervision organized at the various stations, especially Teachers Training Colleges (TTCs), across the country in which they acquired substantial benefits, including (a) knowledge about developing instructional materials, (b) examining students' work, (c) improving teaching effectiveness, and (d) supervising students.

However, opportunities for staff development programs for teachers and headteachers have been hopelessly inadequate.

7. Advantages of existing practices of internal instructional supervision. Internal instructional supervision has two perceived advantages: It facilitates curriculum implementation and students' academic performance, and it enables instructional supervisors to monitor teachers' instructional work.

8. Problems and issues associated with internal instructional supervision. The following were perceived as the major problems associated with internal instructional supervision practices and procedures: (a) lack of consistency and professionalism; (b) lack of productive feedback and follow-up support on matters regarding supervision of instruction; and (c) teachers' general negativity to practices of supervision.

9. Degree of satisfaction with current internal instructional supervision practices and procedures. The majority of teachers and headteachers were somewhat or highly satisfied with two aspects of internal instructional supervision: the overall quality of internal instructional supervision and the administrative support to internal instructional supervision program. On the other hand, many teachers and headteachers were somewhat or highly dissatisfied with three aspects of internal instructional supervision in their schools: (a) the extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work, (b) the existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor, and (c) the adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor.

The interview data revealed that the participants in this study were satisfied with the following aspects of internal instructional supervision in the schools: (a) the presence of reciprocal exchange of instructional information among peer teachers; (b) the manner in which teaching timetables were developed, (c) the scheduling of departmental meetings to address instructional concerns; and (d) the manner in which headteachers encouraged teachers to carry out their instructional responsibilities.

10. Barriers to staff development for teachers and headteachers. The following were perceived to be the major barriers to staff development for teachers and headteachers: (a) lack of the necessary resources to support staff development programs; (b) lack of Ministry of Education policy regarding staff development; (c) demanding, heavy workload on the part of teachers and headteachers in the schools; (d) lack of sufficient staff development opportunities;

11. Suggested changes for the improvement of internal instructional supervision and staff development. The following were the major proposed changes to improve practices of internal instructional supervision: (a) Facilitate classroom observation and student involvement in supervision practices; (b) encourage supervision by headteachers and heads of departments, (c) facilitate changes in teachers' persistent negative attitudes toward instructional supervision; (d) provide adequate supervisory feedback and follow-up support to teachers; (e) foster collaboration and teamwork among teachers and instructional supervisors; and (f) define and explain clearly the purposes and foci of internal instructional supervision practices and procedures.

The following changes were proposed to improve staff development programs for teachers and headteachers: (a) Provide adequate resources and materials to support staff development programs; (b) develop a clear policy regarding in-service training; (c) reduce the heavy workload associated with the 8-4-4 education system (8 years of primary, 4 years of secondary, and 4 years of university); (d) provide adequate in-service training opportunities; and (e) facilitate collaboration among teachers, headteachers, and staff development providers.

12. Types of personnel involved in internal instructional supervision. The participants in this study paid pronounced attention to the involvement of different types of supervisors in supervision practices and procedures as opposed to using only one type of supervisors and felt that instructional supervision is a shared responsibility. In general, the participants perceived that headteachers and deputy headteachers were the major individuals who were and who should be involved in internal instructional supervision. In contrast, they assigned low rankings in terms of the existing extent of involvement in internal instructional supervision by subject heads and colleagues. The lowest ranked preferred personnel in instructional supervision as perceived by teachers and headteachers were the teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation).

However, the following were perceived as major problems regarding internal instructional supervisors, especially headteachers: (a) their lack of the necessary supervisory skills, (b) their usual busy schedules involving non-instructional matters, (c) their lack of seriousness about instructional supervisory duties, (d) their general low academic qualifications compared to those of the teachers whom they are expected to supervise, and (e) their lack of meaningful involvement in teaching classes.

13. The meaning of instructional supervision. Apart from the specific research questions addressed in the questionnaires, the interview participants were requested to suggest the meaning of instructional supervision (see interview protocols, Appendix D). The interview data revealed that teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers had varying views regarding the meaning. According to teacher interviewees, instructional supervision is a process by which headteachers and heads of departments facilitate teaching and learning in the school by monitoring teachers' work. On the other hand, the headteachers and education officers interviewed regarded instructional supervision as a process of ensuring that students are actually taught by their teachers as mandated by the school authority. And, according to the deputy headteacher interviewees, instructional supervision is a process of checking how instruction is conducted in the school.

14. Additional findings: Annual confidential reports. In addition to the findings related to the research questions, the participants in this study made other comments regarding instructional supervision. These comments were associated with the writing of annual confidential reports on teachers. Although the participants, in general, endorsed the writing of reports on teachers as feedback to the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), they were apprehensive about the current confidentiality associated with the reports to the extent that the teachers on whom the reports are written are not expected to gain access to the information contained in the reports (see Appendix J for Annual Confidential Report Form). Instead, they suggested that the information in the reports be available to the teachers concerned to avoid unnecessary suspicion.

Revised Theoretical Framework

Based on the findings of the study and the Kenyan context of instructional supervision and staff development, the initial theoretical framework presented earlier was modified.

Kenyan context. In the Kenyan context, and as expressed by the participants in this study, instructional supervision is concerned with monitoring teachers' work to ensure that students are taught as mandated by the school and higher authorities. This view of instructional supervision suggests that supervision by inspection would be the most normative supervisory practice in Kenyan schools. The following major dimensions are important to understand the Kenyan context of instructional supervision and staff development:

1. the broad legal framework of Kenya's education system defined by the Education Act, Chapter 211, of 1968 (revised 1980), which put the responsibility for education in the hands of the Minister of Education and directed various organs to organize and manage education at all levels (Ministry of Education, 1994);

2. the Kenyan government national goals of education, which focus on the following major functions of education in Kenya: (a) to foster national unity; (b) to serve the needs of national development; (c) to foster, develop, and communicate the rich and varied cultures of Kenya; (d) to prepare and equip Kenyan youth with the knowledge, skills, and expertise to enable them to play an effective role in the life of the nation, whilst ensuring that opportunities are provided for the full development of individual talents and personality; (e) to promote social justice and morality by instilling the right attitudes necessary for training in social obligations and responsibilities; and (f) to foster positive attitudes and consciousness towards other nations (Ministry of Education, 1994);

3. the Ministry of Education school inspection policy, which provides for the establishment, maintenance, and improvement of educational standards in Kenyan schools (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, 1999) and

a mechanism whereby teachers and headteachers can interact on instructional and curriculum matters;

4. the role of the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) in ensuring teacher quality, especially through teacher supervision and staff development;

5. the role of staff development providers—such as the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE), the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC), the Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE), and the Kenya Secondary Schools Heads Association (KSSHA)—in addressing issues ands concerns associated with instructional supervision and in-service training of teachers and headteachers; and

6. school contexts of instructional supervision and staff development; for example, existing support structures in terms of local school policies, teachers' and headteachers' preparedness for supervision and staff development, pupils' understanding of and support for instructional supervision and staff development, and the extent to which support staff understand and support the notions of instructional supervision and staff development. The shared understanding that the primary purpose of instructional supervision and staff development is to facilitate teacher performance for the benefit of students will enable each member of the school to assume a particular role in achieving that goal. In general, schools seem to provide the contexts that support rather than impede school-based instructional supervision and staff development. They are likely to provide environments for success.

Figure 3 represents that part of the initial conceptual framework for instructional supervision and staff development showing the major influences on the practices of instructional supervision and staff development in the Kenyan context. This framework is based on the participants' desired changes in the practices of internal instructional supervision and staff development. Especially relevant, was the participants' belief that successful implementation of school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs in the schools was dependent upon collaboration and teamwork among the key stakeholders. Therefore, the revised framework incorporates the functions and activities of the various stakeholders in the school system, such as teaching staff, support staff, students, staff development provides, external communities, The Ministry of Education, and the Teachers Service Commission in facilitating the success of instructional supervision and staff development programs. The participation of the various stakeholders in ensuring this success will, no doubt, depend on the extent to which a two-way communication, through open discussions and free exchange of ideas, exists among them.

This framework is intended to provide the 'big picture' relating to internal instructional supervision and staff development in the Kenyan context and, as a result, it does not include aspects such as processes and outcomes, which were indicated in the initial framework. However, these two aspects are addressed in the next section.

This framework is based on the assumptions that teachers can grow professionally through collaboration with other individuals and organizations in facilitating their instructional supervision and staff development programs and that collaboration and teamwork are key ingredients in the practices of instructional supervision and staff

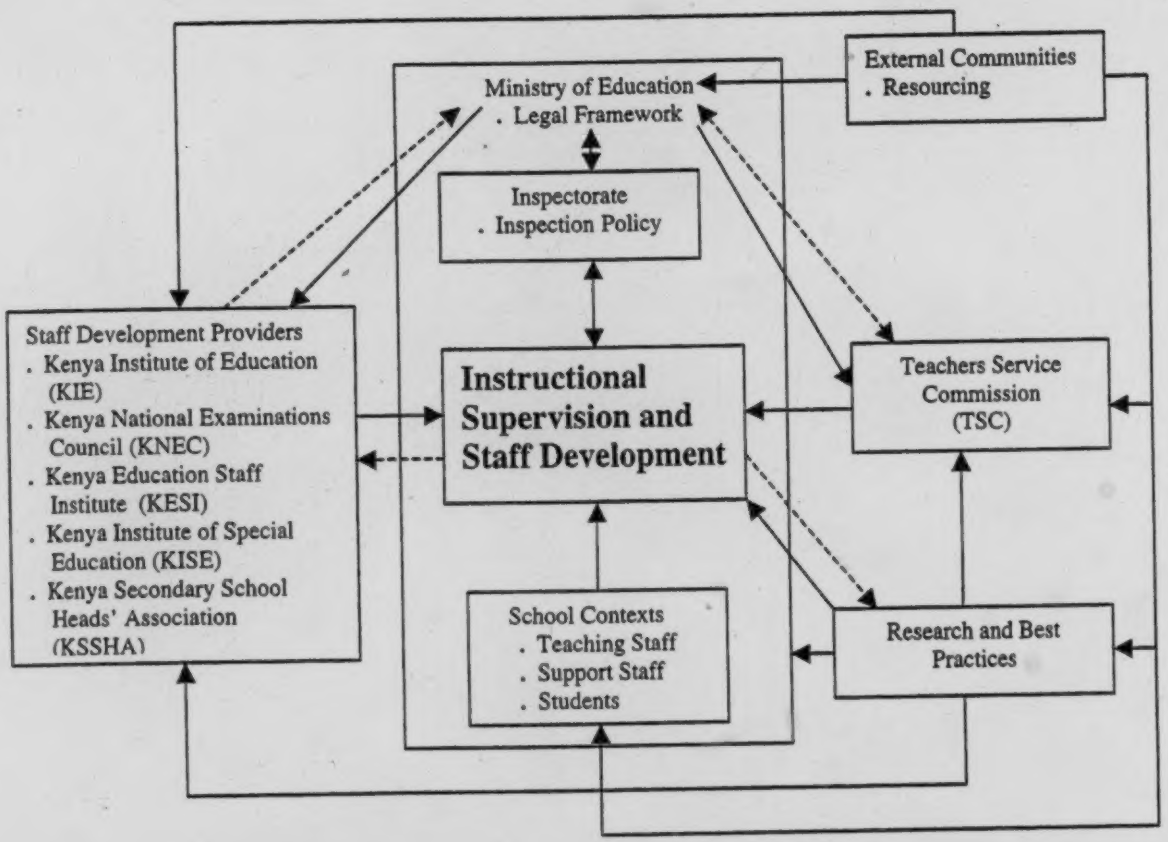
External Communities
. Resourcing
Ministry of Education
. Legal Framework
Inspectorate
. Inspection Policy
Staff Development Providers
. Kenya Institute of Education (KIE)
. Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC)
. Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI)
. Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE)
. Kenya Secondary School Heads' Association (KSSHA)
Instructional Supervision and Staff Development
Teachers Service Commission (TSC)
School Contexts
. Teaching Staff
. Support Staff
. Students
Research and Best Practices

Figure 3: Influences on Instructional Supervision and Staff Development in the Kenyan Context

--------→ Feedback to be considered

development. This means that the processes of school-based instructional supervision and staff development should be opened to the multiple interactors on the educational scene. These interactors are the "significant others" whose input could contribute significantly to superior teacher effectiveness and, ultimately, to enhanced student achievement. These significant others include staff development providers mentioned earlier, school inspectors from the Inspectorate, school-based instructional supervisors, such as headteachers, deputy headteachers, and heads of departments, peer teachers, students, and individuals and organizations from the external communities, such as parents, church organizations, and sponsors. Such individuals and organizations can provide the support necessary to facilitate instructional supervision and staff development programs, for example, through professional advice and provision of funds and instructional materials through "*harambee*" spirit discussed earlier.

The participants in this study suggested that, to improve instructional supervision and staff development, collaboration and teamwork among the key players, such as teachers, headteachers, and staff development providers, would be essential. Furthermore, collaboration, teamwork, policy, in-service training, and providers of in-service training were dominant themes in this study (Appendix E, Table 3.9). The existence of collaborative structures provide opportunities to instructional supervisors to focus on teachers' improvement efforts, on curriculum and instructional issues, and on providing an environment that encourages people to innovate, to experiment, to take risks, and to constantly learn.

Basic components. The revised theoretical framework for instructional supervision and staff development consists of the following major aspects of the practices of instructional supervision and staff development as its basic components: (a) process, (b) purposes, (c) inputs in terms of findings from research and best practices, (d) practices in working with different types of teachers, (e) instructional supervisors, (f) identified and defined foci, (g) intended and unintended outcomes, and (h) provisions for feedback and follow-up support. These are discussed in the following section.

Processes. Because the heart of supervisory leadership is to provide opportunities for teachers to learn, to grow professionally, to care, to help each other, and to teach more effectively (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 20020), it is important that the processes through which instructional supervisors can facilitate supervision of instruction and staff development be defined clearly. This could be achieved through shared understanding between teachers and instructional supervisors about effective processes toward supervision and staff development. The participants in this study advocated for collaborative forms of instructional supervision and staff development in which teachers and headteachers work as a team to devise strategies to facilitate professional learning for the benefit of students.

Knowledge of the processes of supervision and staff development will guide teachers and instructional supervisors to address problem areas in their practice and to identify opportunities for improvement.

Purposes. The purposes for conducting instructional supervision must be established and all the stakeholders must have a clear understanding of these purposes. The participants in this study expressed a strong need to explain clearly, especially to teachers and instructional supervisors, the purposes served by instructional supervision. According to the participants, the current instructional supervision practices and procedures in the schools serve the following major purposes: These are to:(a) acquaint teachers and headteachers with ongoing changes in education system; (b) facilitate headteachers' supervisory and advisory skills; (c) educate teachers and headteachers about instructional supervision; (d) improve headteachers' performance as school administrators; and (e) educate teachers about teaching methodology.

Inputs. The practices of instructional supervision and staff development should incorporate findings from research and best practices in these areas. As Northern and Bailey (1991) noted, instructional leaders must subscribe to current research strategies for staff development. Similarly, the necessary resources, such as funds, should be availed to facilitate the success of instructional supervision and staff development programs in the schools. The participants in this study suggested that the Ministry of Education should consider providing schools with resources needed to support these programs. They also agreed that schools should endeavor to generate their own funds through '*harambee*' spirit.

Practices. If instructional supervisors are to help teachers achieve their instructional best, then they must develop a repertoire of supervisory strategies in working with different types of teachers. The participants in this study suggested that the following practices be given high priority in the future instructional supervision process; (a) classroom observation; (b) examination of teachers' artefacts of teaching; (c) obtaining feedback from students about teachers' instructional effectiveness through questionnaires and interviews; and (d) ensuring a great deal of professionalism in the practices and procedures of instructional supervision and staff development by treating teachers with the necessary dignity and respect they deserve as professionals.

Instructional supervisors. Internal instructional supervision programs must specify who instructional supervisors are and must define the roles of the supervisors. The participants in this study gave preference to the following types of individuals as instructional supervisors: (a) headteachers; (b) deputy headteachers; (c) heads of departments; (d) peer teachers; and (e) teachers themselves (self-directed supervision). To facilitate the work of internal instructional supervisors, the participants in this study suggested that supervisory roles for the respective supervisors be clarified and defined.

Foci of instructional supervision and staff development. The foci of instructional supervision and staff development must be identified, defined, and clarified to the stakeholders, especially teachers and headteachers. The participants in this study expressed a need to define clearly the foci of instructional supervision practices and procedures. They agreed that instructional supervision should focus on the following major areas: (a) teachers' methods and techniques of presentation; (b) teacher-learner relationship; and (c) teachers' ways of motivating students. Similarly, they suggested that in-service training programs for teachers and headteachers should have the following major foci: (a) instructional supervision; (b) school inspection; (c) delegation of duties and responsibilities; (e) roles of the various types of school personnel, such as headteachers, deputy headteachers, and heads of departments.

Outcomes. Instructional supervision is expected to produce positive outcomes, especially for the benefit t of students. For example, the participants in this study agreed that instructional supervision in the schools had the following major outcomes: (a) improving teaching and learning; (b) facilitating student performance; (c) ensuring teacher performance of professional duties; (d) facilitating curriculum implementation;

(d) facilitating teacher professionalism and discipline; (e) fostering collaboration and teamwork; and (f) facilitating teacher motivation.

However, the practices and procedures of instructional supervision have the potential of producing unwarranted, negative, and unintended outcomes. The participants in this study identified several negative outcomes in the present practice of internal instructional supervision they were experiencing in the schools, such as: (a) unnecessary embarrassment; (b) stress; (c) panic; (d) lack of trust; (e) dislike for instructional supervision; (f) discomfort with supervision practices; (g) negative attitudes toward supervision; and (j) lack of cooperation. Therefore, instructional supervision and staff development practices must be conducted professionally and with the necessary caution to guard against misinterpretation and possible negative outcomes.

Provision of feedback and follow-up. Feedback and follow-up are considered central to the processes of instructional supervision and staff development. The participants in this study expressed a strong need to provide teachers with immediate feedback regarding teaching strategies and techniques, especially after classroom observation and to make appropriate follow-ups on supervisory matters. The participants also expressed a desire for feedback and follow-up regarding in-service training programs for teachers and headteachers.

Feedback provides an open channel for discussion and evaluation of instructional supervision and staff development programs. Once the teachers' professional concerns have been identified and feedback have been provided, there is a need to develop a plan of action to address the concerns identified. Such action plans need top be addressed through provisions for staff development.

Staff development. Staff development is one of the requisites in instructional improvement and effectiveness. Upgrading teachers' skills in teaching and problem solving, increasing their awareness and knowledge about current development in the field of education, developing their effectiveness in classroom management, as well as improving their professionalism through in-service training or in-house training, are some of the activities of an instructional leader. Providing staff development, then, is an important function of instructional leadership. It is an important means to changing teacher beliefs, attitudes, and abilities. This component within the framework stands as a reminder that teachers are professionals engaged in lifelong learning and can take several forms, such as:(a) the teacher visiting another teacher's classroom to see a demonstration of certain models or skills; (b) coaching sessions; and (c) staff discussions on topics basic to instructional improvement. Staff development is integral to professional growth and necessary for effective teaching and student learning.

Also crucial in facilitating school-based instructional supervision programs are the following two components of school organizations: administrative structures and support staff. These are covered in the following section.

Administrative structures. Schools' administrative structures can support or impede instructional supervision and staff development. The administrators who are charged with the primary responsibility for improving instruction and working with teachers may be perceived as organizational members who can bring about change. Then administrative structure allows for the development of a team approach to instructional supervision and staff development. In most current educational efforts it is expected that headteachers, as the first inspectors of their schools who are closest to and most aware of the day-to-day performance of the teachers, will play an important role in internal instructional supervision and staff development of teachers. The headteachers, as instructional supervisors, are expected to facilitate the following two major links : (a) school-community partnerships and (b) school-Ministry of Education communications.

School-community partnerships. Headteachers play a primary role in presenting school goals, activities, and achievements to the external communities. Their relationship with their external communities is important for several reasons that can impact on internal instructional supervision and staff development. First, headteacherss with strong community ties can do much to elicit communities' contributions to the schools in terms of funds or to the purchase of instructional materials and equipment. In deed, the current emphasis in school development projects relates to cost sharing which depends heavily on the effectiveness of the headteachers in creating and maintaining positive school-community relations; and

School-Ministry of Education communications. Headteachers operate as a linking agent between their schools and the Ministry of Education. They communicate Ministry policies and guidelines to their teachers and represent school activities and achievements to the Ministry. Their role in both directions can affect the quality of internal instructional supervision and staff development and the overall education students receive. Better communication between schools and the Ministry of Education may lead to better resource allocations to support programs, such as instructional supervision and staff development, which in turn can lead to improved teacher performance and student achievement.

The national policies intended to improve education performance generally depend on changes occurring at the school level, changes that typically headteachers are charged to implement. The extent to which headteachers encourage the implementation of new programs and practices intended to improve educational quality may contribute directly to student performance.

Support staff. The quality of instruction in schools rests not only with teachers, but with the support staff as well. The support staff, such as laboratory assistants, working collaboratively with instructional supervisors and teachers, have the responsibility to assist teachers in improving classroom instruction, for example by identifying and collecting instructional materials.

This revised theoretical framework for supervision and staff development seems to be a viable alternative view of the practices of instructional supervision and staff development in the Kenyan context. It shows that teacher growth and development are shared responsibilities and that achieving the improvement objectives becomes more realistic through collaborative supervision and staff development processes.

Conclusions

In this section the conclusions based on the findings of this study are given. They have been organized around three major perspectives. In the first subsection, conclusions are presented that deal with the theoretical literature concerning instructional supervision and staff development. In the second subsection, conclusions are presented that focus on practice regarding instructional supervision and staff development. In the third and final subsection, conclusions are presented that focus on policy on instructional supervision and staff development.

Conclusions Regarding Theory on Instructional Supervision and Staff Development

1. Supervision as staff development. Supervision as staff development is important in (a) facilitating teachers' learning from their own experience and from the professional literature; (b) enhancing teachers' ongoing professional growth and development in conceptual and technical domains of teaching and increasing their continued motivation; and (c) developing teachers' knowledge of curriculum and instruction. As Wanzare and da Costa (2000) concluded, supervision is an important vehicle for staff development and that supervision of teachers, especially, "can and should be an important component of an effective, comprehensive teacher development program" (p. 52).

The extent to which these functions would be achieved would most likely depend on the extent to which the supervisory practices are sensitive to and address the needs of the various categories of teachers; namely, beginning, marginal, and experienced teachers. Effective instructional leaders promote staff development and invest time, expertise, and energy in the development of their staff members. Such investments are likely to contribute toward improved student learning and to the overall image of the school. However, facilitating professional roles of teachers would depend on developing sound professional development practices that are sensitive to the concerns of teachers and students. Staff development initiatives that are poorly conceptualized and are insensitive to the participants' concerns may make little effort to help teachers translate theory into practice.

2. Collaborative supervision. Instructional supervision is a collective endeavor that will require full involvement of teachers and instructional supervisors to build a professional learning community. As Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) concluded, the ideal setting of teacher learning and for facilitating professional development is a professional learning community whose members are critically dependent on each other and that is characterized by an atmosphere of joint responsibility, mutual respect, and a sense of personal and group identity. Collaborative endeavors (a) can work to sustain the interests of the various stakeholders, (b) may lead to eventually establishing a broader collaborative ethos in the school by introducing new models of professional interaction among teachers and instructional supervisors, and (c) may professionalize teaching by fostering the spirit of sharing and dignity. Additionally, headteachers working with teachers in a collaborative learning community are likely (a) to be accessible to teachers for professional assistance, (b) to be involved in classroom affairs that would promote student growth, and (c) to render professional services to teachers as the need arises. Collaborative endeavors are built on the notion that when people work together and coordinate their efforts, they are likely to accomplish more than they could achieve alone.

The essence of instructional leadership in the school is the extent to which instructional leaders share duties and responsibilities with other individuals in the school. However, this sharing would depend on the context in which it takes place and the existence of a positive environment that supports risk taking, mutual understanding, and quality supervision.

Conclusions Regarding Practices of Instructional Supervision and Staff Development

1. Supervision practices. Numerous practices for collecting data on teachers were prevalent in the schools studied and were employed by internal instructional supervisors. However, because of varying interpretations of instructional supervision, there was no uniformity regarding the practices and procedures of instructional supervision across the schools. Overall, findings of this study indicated that a great deal of importance was attached to examining teachers' artifacts of teaching. An examination of such artifacts, especially lesson plans, will enable the supervisor to judge on-the-spot adjustments in the lesson plans made by teachers while the lesson is underway to accommodate ongoing behavioral cues from students or as the need for such adjustments become necessary.

2. Supervisory style. Supervision by inspection appeared to be the most commonly used supervisory style among secondary internal instructional supervisors, especially headteachers. With this style, the headteachers continued to place a great deal of importance on teachers' attendance to scheduled lessons and to the availability of the artifacts of teaching. This style appeared to be highly authoritative and perhaps a source of frequent conflicts and poor relations between teachers and headteachers. As a result: (a) headteachers were not very effective in offering professional assistance to teachers; (b) teachers had no confidence in the practices and procedures of instructional supervision; (c) teachers were highly stressed, developed negative attitudes toward supervision, and viewed them as fault-finding exercises aimed at catching them doing the wrong; and (d) the process of supervision, supposedly meant to facilitate teacher performance, actually did not address teachers' instructional concerns. It can be surmised that headteachers did not have the repertoire of supervision techniques recommended by experts in instructional supervision that recognized teacher involvement in supervision; that embodies appropriate criteria against which teacher performance can be measured and judged; and that is founded around issues regarded as valuable to teachers and headteachers.

Teacher motivation and confidence in their instructional performance skills will not increase as a result of the current supervisory style that the headteachers employ. Furthermore, the feelings of stress and frustration among teachers associated with the current supervision practices, as revealed in this study, will most likely remain.

3. Instructional supervision and school improvement. It seems that the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision led to the overall school improvement by enhancing the quality of teaching and learning, curriculum implementation, and student performance. The literature on the school improvement research (e.g., Hopkins, Aincow, & West, 1994, as cited in Glickman et al., 2001) suggested that (a) school improvement efforts should be directed toward student outcomes, (b) the primary focus on school improvement should be teaching and learning, and (c) school improvement should focus on school development as a whole.

4. Adequacy of staff development. Although staff development programs for teachers and headteachers existed, especially those organized by the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNCE), the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) and the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), such programs were highly inadequate. This inadequacy means that teachers and headteachers in public secondary schools would not be adequately prepared for their respective professional roles. In the long term, these professionals would not be able to expand their expertise and knowledge in the light of ongoing educational reforms; to acquire new and stimulating ideas and practices; to expand their expertise of understanding, attitudes, and skills; and to develop new insights and commitment to the teaching profession. In general, participants in this study expressed a desire for more opportunities for in-service training.

5. Teacher and headteacher involvement in staff development. It is clear that the participants in this study did not see teachers and headteachers as having a great deal of input into matters regarding their professional development. The absence of this involvement suggests that the teachers and headteachers did not value staff development programs, especially those organized by external agencies, such as the Inspectorate and the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), and did not view them as beneficial to them. Continued lack of involvement of these professionals, especially in planning and organizing their professional development programs, would most likely frustrate their perceptions about professional development and reduce their enthusiasm for and degree of participation in professional development programs. The more that teachers and headteachers have the opportunity for full involvement in their staff development programs, the more likely that they will see themselves as responsible for their professional learning. They will also be more certain of the professional culture of staff development as it relates to their professional practices in the schools.

6. Resourcing. There were extreme shortages of resource materials and equipment in the schools studied to support school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs to the extent that these programs resulted in frustration. Because of these shortages, the quality of supervision of instruction and staff development programs offered in the schools have been poor and hopelessly inadequate. However, with the proposed new social/community development concept, the Kenya Social Action Plan, on which the government is currently working, additional provisions might be made for public secondary schools to acquire the needed resources to support supervision and staff development initiatives. Furthermore, as reported by Standard Team (2003), in reflecting on a speech by Vice-President Michael Wamalwa during the victory party for Matungu Narc MP, David Were, at Lung'anyiro Primary School, Western Province, the government is considering funding for secondary education and will work out modalities on the provision of free secondary education once facilities for free primary education are completed. With this new initiative, perhaps more instructional resource materials and equipment will be available to secondary schools to alleviate the current shortcomings.

Conclusions Regarding Policies on Instructional Supervision and Staff Development

1. Policy development. There appeared to be no clearly written policies regarding internal instructional supervision and staff development for teachers and headteachers of which these groups of professionals were aware. As long as policy guidelines on instructional supervision are not forthcoming, (a) teachers and headteachers would most likely continue to hold differing views about what instructional supervision means; (b) teachers would not be able to identify instructional practices that need improvement or to construct meaningful teaching activities that meet the needs of students, school organization, and instructional supervisors; and (c) instructional supervisors would not be able to provide teachers with a framework for restructuring their teaching practices to facilitate student learning.

2. Dissemination of information about policy guidelines. The essence of school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs involves having well-defined policies that provide guidance and direction regarding the purposes and practices and procedures of supervision and staff development. Yes, policies on supervision and staff development can be developed, but it is important that instructional supervisors and teachers become aware and understand the policies and, more important, implement them. Then what does this mean for schools? It means that communication of policy guidelines to schools is an important endeavor.

Dissemination of information regarding policy guidelines to schools is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education through its Inspectorate wing and provincial and district education offices. In this regard, the Provincial Directors of Education (PDEs) and the District Education Officers (DEOs) can play their professional roles more effectively in enriching headteachers and teachers with regard to dissemination of information on supervision and staff development policies. If the Ministry of Education fails to communicate with schools about such policies, as indicated by the findings, the purpose for which supervision and staff development programs are supposedly developed, that of providing professional support to teachers and headteachers, will not be accomplished.

Recommendations

A synthesis and analysis of data generated by this study may be summarized in several recommendations. This section addresses the major recommendations for practice, for policy, and for research, based on the conclusions reached.

Recommendations for Practice

Participants in this study expressed their frustrations regarding the current practice of supervision of instruction which primarily involves inspection of teachers' instructional work. From this finding, it was concluded that (a) teachers will most likely continue to be frustrated and to lose their motivation and confidence in teaching performance should this style persist in the schools and (b) that the current practice will not benefit teachers as professionals. Based on these conclusions, the following two recommended are made:

1. That internal instructional supervisors develop consistent assessment procedures for teacher performance. One logical strategy toward this end would be for instructional supervisors to work collaboratively with teachers to develop appropriate assessment procedures for teacher performance. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) noted that, in implementing supervisory options, (a) supervision should be viewed as a process that is equally accessible to teachers and administrators, (b) supervision should not monopolize supervision process by excluding teachers, and (c) principals should endeavor to build a culture of shared responsibility for learning and instructional improvement. Assessment procedures may include frequency of classroom observation, methods of recording classroom teaching, when and how to provide feedback on teacher performance, and how data collected about teachers should be used. In defining the

procedures, teachers' experience and levels of competence should be considered. Incompetent and inexperienced teachers should be observed more frequently than competent and more experienced teachers.

Clearly defined assessment procedures may serve as guides for both teachers and instructional supervisors, should be the foundation for assessment, and should facilitate teachers' confidence in the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision. Most important, how the data collected are used by internal instructional supervisors should be clarified. Assessment data may be used for (a) conferences with teachers, (b) the creation of a professional development assistance plan, and (b) personnel decisions regarding, for example, merit pay, career ladder, change of assignment, increased responsibilities, retention, and dismissal (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). Headteachers need to use an appropriate supervision model. The participants in this study indicated satisfaction with a collaborative form of supervision model. The key is most likely the use of any model with the ingredient of high teacher involvement and adequate steps to make the process thorough and meaningful.

2. That internal instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, should endeavor to adopt and to foster professionalism as a cultural norm in the practices of internal instructional supervision. It is important for headteachers, as internal instructional supervisors, to recognize that teachers come to school with a wide range of professional training backgrounds as well as personal notions on how best to carry out teaching responsibilities, and, as a result, they expect to be treated as true professionals. Therefore, teachers' professional ethics, especially regarding instructional supervision, should be the expected norm in all schools. Also, it is essential that for supervision to

succeed, to be viewed positively by teachers, and to be productive for them, the practices and procedures of supervision must be responsive to teachers' needs and professional endeavors and must be based on best practices. Furthermore, because teachers as professionals tend to work most effectively within the context of a collegial environment that supports professionalism; consequently, they must be given the opportunity to prioritize their own instructional areas and to plan the pace of change in their classrooms. Additionally, to facilitate and to sustain productive instructional supervision practices, principals should provide teachers with opportunities to discuss and adopt professionalism as a cultural norm in their schools to further their professional development in their learning communities. According to Eraut (1995), being a professional practitioner implies three things: (a) a moral commitment to serve the interests of students by reflecting on their well-being and their progress and deciding how best it can be fostered or promoted; (b) a professional obligation to review periodically the nature and effectiveness of one's practice in order to improve the quality of one's management, pedagogy, and decision making; and (c) a professional obligation to continue to develop one's knowledge both by personal reflection and through interaction with others. To Speck (1999), professional culture is associated with a sense of collegiality, trust, respect, and reflection within the professional learning community. As Republic of Kenya (1999) concluded, when teaching is professionalized, teachers will be expected to be efficient and effective in their delivery of educational services. Republic of Kenya also recommended that the concept of teacher as a professional be defined within acceptable academic and professional principle and that a comprehensive criteria for professionalizing the teaching career be defined. Toward this end, instructional supervisors should endeavor to work with teachers strictly within the context of teaching and learning and the overall welfare of students and the schools. Above all, instructional supervisors should recognize and acknowledge the professional autonomy and authority of teachers because, as professionals, teachers are best placed to identify students' needs and the most effective teaching and learning strategies.

In the light of the conclusion that supervision of instruction is a collective endeavor that requires full involvement of both supervisors and supervisees to work together, the following recommendation is made:

3. That internal instructional supervisors, working as a team with teachers, should develop consistent collaborative approaches to instructional supervision that embraces a philosophy of shared decision making. Toward this end, there is a need for headteachers, as instructional supervisors, to establish a strong culture that provides teachers with opportunities to collaborate with them in redesigning curricular and instructional programs that facilitate student learning, and to encourage collaborative groupings of teachers, departmental heads, subject heads, and other school members to play active roles with respect to instructional leadership. Also, teachers should be encouraged to collaborate with each other and work together with other school staff. With such a framework, attention should be devoted to the collective responsibility of the school team without losing sight of the individual's freedom and creativity. This form of collaboration is important in promoting the school as a learning community.

Collaborative approaches to supervision may provide opportunities to teachers and headteachers to identify collectively the processes that support the school's vision of professional growth and student learning. Several persistent findings related to supervision of instruction indicate that teacher-supervisor collaboration is necessary to facilitate instructional improvement. For example, in a study of instructional supervisory practices in Nablus secondary schools in the West Bank, Hilo (1987) identified a need for teacher involvement in the leadership and decision-making processes in schools, especially in those supervisory activities concerned with improving teaching strategies, planning units, and selecting instructional materials. And, more recently, Mohammed (1991), in a study that investigated what beliefs, feelings, attitudes, and knowledge of effective supervision existed from the perceptions of principals from Edmonton Catholic schools, Edmonton, Alberta, underscored the need for teacher and supervisor collaboration and teachers' active involvement in supervisory decision-making processes.

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that the lack of resources affected seriously the implementation of school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs to the extent that these programs became meaningless and, consequently, they did not benefit teachers, especially. On the basis on this conclusion, it is recommended that:

4. The Ministry of Education as well as schools endeavor to provide sufficient resource materials, such as funds and equipment, to support school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs for teachers and headteachers. At the national level and through policy provision and legislation, the Ministry of Education should provide for budgetary allocations to make in-service training for teachers and headteachers an ongoing practice. In the absence of sufficient resources, the Ministry of Education should attempt to solicit financial support from international agencies such as UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID, and World Bank. Special consideration for in-service

programs should be made pertaining to differences in professional needs for (a) urban teachers and headteachers, (b) rural teachers and headteachers, and (c) beginning teachers and headteachers.

Individual schools should also endeavor to generate their own resources to adequately meet the instructional needs of teachers, students, and other stakeholders in the schools. Headteachers should cooperate with their Boards of Governors (BOGs) and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) to design various strategies to raise funds.

The BOGs and PTAs should work collaboratively with parents, DEOs, PDEs, and well-wishers to explore a variety of possibilities to acquire the needed resources to support school-based programs, including instructional supervision and staff development. A major possibility should include organizing fund-raising programs through *harambee* spirit. *Harambee* is a Kiswahili word that refers to a homegrown concept built on the voluntary spirit of willingness to help by mutually coming together for a common cause or causes (*East African Standard* Editor, 2002). According to Awori and Ojwang' (2003), in reporting the views of the Minister for Planning and National Development, Anyang' Nyong', during the launch of Kisumu Teachers Sacco Society Front Office Services, Kisumu, the government is working on a new social/community development concept, the Kenya Social Action Plan, to replace *harambee*. This new initiative will be easier to manage, affordable, and sustainable; have the impetus to develop various institutions, such as schools; and avoid wastage and the problem of stalled projects widely associated with *harambees*. Additionally, the new community development plan will be included in the Economic Development Blueprint on which the Ministry for Planning and National Development is currently working. I hope that through the proposed community development plan, sufficient funds and other resources might be acquired to support school programs, including school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs.

Other possibilities that schools should explore to acquire needed resources should include seeking public and private grants, facilitating school-business partnerships, and sharing available resources between and across schools.

Two of the conclusions drawn from the study were that (a) staff development opportunities for teachers and headteachers were hopelessly inadequate and (b) ongoing professional development of teachers and headteachers should be facilitated. Based on these conclusions, it is recommended that:

5. The Ministry of Education and other staff developers, such as the National Union of Teachers (KNUT) and the Kenya Secondary School Heads Association (KSSHA) endeavor to provide teachers and headteachers with ongoing in-service training, especially in instructional supervision. The literature on the school improvement research (e.g., Glickman et al., 2001) indicated that improving schools are characterized by ongoing professional development of teachers and principals, including continuous analysis, reflection, and growth. Wanzare and da Costa (2000) observed that, because supervision is an important vehicle for staff development, instructional supervision of teachers, especially, “can and should be an important component of an effective, comprehensive teacher development program” (p. 52). As Blackburn (1992) recommended, school administrators should use professional development opportunities to help individual teachers become more effective and competent in specific areas of

identified needs. Therefore, teachers and headteachers should be given the time and training necessary to carry out instructional supervision.

The need for substantial time to be allocated for professional development of teachers and school principals are current themes in the school improvement and staff development literature (e.g., Little, 1984; Stevenson, 1987). This strategy will, no doubt, serve to convince teachers and principals that efforts spent in their staff development are valued by staff developers in general, and the Ministry of Education in particular.

For headteachers, in particular, this strategy would enable them to be professionally competent to provide "on-the-spot" assistance and guidance to their teachers when needed. As Ornstein (1991) and Kosmoski (1997) noted, instructional leadership orthodoxy implies that principals should have specific knowledge related to teaching and learning and should recognize that, to generate a more positive and trusting relationship among teachers, professional credibility depends upon developing high levels of expertise related to instruction in addition to positive interpersonal skills.

Also, if staff development programs have to play a role in the professional learning of teachers and headteachers, they must be the ones who (a) identify staff development practices that are in need of improvement and provide remedial assistance to bring about that change or improvement and (b) adopt a developmental approach to changing staff behavior by linking theory to practice and by determining the professional needs of teachers and headteachers. In summary, the message is simple: Internal instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, must be given the training and practice to work with teachers concerning the teaching and learning process. Headteachers then must find the time and put the effort into using the knowledge gained from training, along with an appropriate supervisory model to assist teachers in instructional improvement. Above all, teachers must be involved and must have input into the supervisory system in use in their schools.

To sustain staff development programs that support teachers and headteachers, it is important that these professionals be involved fully in all aspects of the planning and implementation of the programs as equal partners and as they conceptualize and support new professional learning activities. This means that staff development programs should be based on participants' interests solicited through appropriate mechanisms to obtain the general concerns about program topics an formats. These strategies would support the belief that collaboration is important and serves as a staff development mechanism and that decision making about how best to implement staff development programs must be shared by teachers and principals themselves.

Recommendations for Policy

Apparently, the Ministry of Education had not given sufficient attention to school-based instructional supervision by providing clearly-written policy guidelines to facilitate supervisors' and teachers' understanding of what instructional supervision process entailed and, as a result, instructional supervision appeared to be conducted haphazardly. Similarly, policy guidelines from the Ministry of Education regarding in-service training of teachers and headteachers were wanting. These conclusions suggest the following two recommendations for policy:

1. That there is an urgent need for the Ministry of Education to develop a clearly written policy regarding supervision of instruction. Instructional supervisors must relate their supervisory practices to well-established policies and guidelines governing the

practice of supervision that specify the general methods, practices, and procedures of instructional supervision. As explained by Caldwell and Spinks (1988), a policy is a set of guidelines that provide a framework for action in achieving an intended purpose or purposes. Policy for instructional supervision should include, among other things, common schemes of operation, set supervision programs known to teachers and to supervisors, provision for periodic formal supervisory reports submitted to the Ministry of Education, provision for supervisory feedback to teachers, the purpose of supervision, provision for rewards for deserving teachers, the foci of instructional supervision, and the roles of the various stakeholders, such as teachers, headteachers, and students. A clarification of the role of the various stakeholders in the supervision process might help address the problem of role conflicts associated with the current practices of internal instructional supervision reported earlier in Chapter 6. Feedback to teachers, especially after classroom observation, enables teachers and supervisors to share their experiences regarding classroom events as a basis for instructional improvement. Such feedback may be facilitated through face-to-face conferences. With a clear perception of the purpose of instructional supervision, teachers will be able to understand the importance of supervision, thus facilitating their participation in the practices of instructional supervision. Policy on supervision of instruction should be applied fairly, reasonably, professionally, and ethically.

Overall, having the Ministry of Education emphasize a review of school leadership that promotes a strong administrative role in the area of instructional leadership, increasing headteachers' expertise as instructional leaders, as well as reviewing the amount of time that headteachers allocate to instructional supervision appear to be viable policy areas that may pay dividends in terms of instructional improvement. Such policy provision should encourage collaborative decision making pertaining to instructional supervision and should facilitate the allocation of adequate resources to facilitate supervision programs in the schools. Therefore, effective supervisory policies must be clear, concise, flexible but firm, practical in terms of their implementability, logical, and contextual; indicate financial and leadership support; and be credible to gain target-group acceptance and behavioral change (Burger & Bumbarger, 1991).

2. That the Ministry of Education develops a policy model based on investment in school improvement, including different assumptions on how to improve the schools and teachers' and headteachers' performance. In their current forms, staff development programs do not seem to serve the interests of these groups of professionals and appear unsuitable for either school improvement or individual development. Such a policy may increase the possibilities for successful professional development of teachers and headteachers. It seems logical to expect that a policy on staff development would provide direction on the many aspects of staff development that are currently vague, such as the role of the headteachers in staff development of teachers, the uncertainty regarding what staff development formats are appropriate for the Kenyan situation associated with poverty, the lack of appropriate instructional facilities, the general low image regarding the teaching profession, the lack of professional standards for assessing in-service activities, and the low teacher morale. A major factor that needs to be considered in policy formulation is that in Kenya, policymakers have had little opportunity to assess the costs and benefits of staff development as a public investment. Nevertheless, they

continue to view staff development—sometimes called in-service training, refresher courses, or professional development—as a basic tool for changing teacher behaviors, and therefore schools, and as a means of ensuring teacher quality.

A policy on staff development should have provisions for assessment of the costs of running the programs. Also, provisions should be made regarding periodic evaluation of the achievements and for review. Where appropriate, the policy should be reviewed within two years. The policy should also address, among other things, organizational issues such as when, how often, and where staff development should occur, as well as decisions about staff development content. All the major stakeholders, including teachers and headteachers, should be involved in formulating the policy. The policy document should be distributed to all schools and should be particularly drawn to the attention of beginning teachers and headteachers. Policies for in-house training for teachers and headteachers should also be developed to address specialist areas of activities, and organizational changes.

Recommendations for Further Research

From the findings of this study, it was concluded that the participants had no confidence in the present practice of internal instructional supervision seemingly because of the failure of instructional supervisors to use well-defined criteria or standards for judging teacher effectiveness. Based on this conclusion, it is recommended that:

1. Studies be conducted to determine appropriate standards or criteria for evaluating the performance of secondary teachers, both novices and veterans, and which would be responsive to the unique Kenyan context of teaching. Evaluation criteria provide general dimensions against which teacher performance may be rated as success

(Wheeler & Haertel, 1993; as cited in Wheeler & Scriven, 1997). As explained by Wheeler and Scriven, evaluation criteria may include observable types of knowledge, skills, abilities, behaviors, and attributes. Information could be gleaned from students, headteachers, teachers, and senior Ministry of Education officers.

A major question that should be addressed in such a study includes, What are the preferred evaluation criteria for teacher effectiveness? Investigations regarding this question should include surveys through questionnaires and interviews as well as observations and analysis of relevant government documents. Such studies can provide a useful bank of evaluation standards that can be used (a) by teachers themselves to examine their own practice alone, together, or with their instructional supervisors and (b) as frameworks in improving teaching, in defining what is good teaching practice, and in designing teacher supervision and evaluation systems (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002).

Based on the conclusion that the lack of resources seriously affected the implementation of internal instructional supervision programs, the following recommendation for research is proposed:

2. That studies be conducted that would determine specific support structures that facilitate the implementation of school-based instructional supervision programs. Information can be gleaned from the Ministry of Education headquarters; provincial, district, and zonal education offices; and schools. For effective implementation of instructional supervision, essential materials and equipment must be available. Among the most needed resources is the computer. Also essential would be sufficient audiovisual aids, such as overhead projectors, video projectors, and television. Above all, today's teachers must be computer literate and trained in the effective use of computers in

instruction (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). Studies regarding support structures may include determining the following areas: (a) the existence of adequate instructional materials in the schools, (b) types of instructional resources needed and how to acquire them, (c) strategies for funding, and (e) the availability and adequacy of information technology programs for teachers and headteachers.

This study employed questionnaires and interviews to gather research data. The strengths and limitations associated with these instruments were cited earlier in Chapter 3. Findings of the study revealed a variety of practices of internal instructional supervision, such as checking teachers' potential tools of work, examining students' exercise books, holding conferences with teachers, observing teachers in their classrooms, and supervision by walking around. These findings supported the conclusion that internal instructional supervisors apparently recognized the need to facilitate teacher performance through different supervisory strategies. On the basis of this conclusion and in recognizing the limitations of the instruments used in the study, it is logical to make the following recommendation for future research:

3. That an observational study that focuses on the current practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision and staff development be conducted. This should include watching headteachers in their supervisory practices to determine what they actually do and how they do it, and participating in in-service training programs for teachers and headteachers, for example, those organized by the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), the Kenya Secondary School Heads Association (KSSHA), and the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE), to watch the various activities in which the participants are involved and their relevance to the role of internal instructional

supervisors and supervisees. A major advantage of an observational study, as explained by Gall et al. (2003), is its potential to yield more accurate data than other research strategies do.

Based on the conclusion that internal instructional supervision appeared to have contributed to the overall school improvement, it is recommended that:

4. Studies are needed that would determine the long-term impacts of the practices of internal instructional supervision and staff development on school improvement. Do these practices actually lead to school improvement? How does school improvement come about? Investigations should include how different practices of instructional supervision and staff development affect individual schools, teachers, and students. Sample schools may be selected to determine the progress regarding instructional supervision and staff development within a specified time period after the implementation of the action plans.

Such investigations may be enhanced through extensive, thoughtful dialogue with the key stakeholders in the schools (e.g., headteachers, teachers, and students) and critical examination and analysis of improvement efforts in terms of teacher quality and instructional approaches, as well as students' learning, over a period of time.

Findings of this study revealed mixed understandings regarding the meaning of instructional supervision. Overall, the participants agreed that instructional supervision is a process of checking other people's work to ensure that bureaucratic regulations and procedures are followed and that loyalty to the higher authorities is observed. These findings supported the conclusions that instructional supervision was equated with inspection; that teachers, especially viewed instructional supervision as a strategy aimed at policing their work; and that the varying interpretations of instructional supervision may have led to differences in supervision practices in the schools.

Based on these conclusions, it is recommended that:

5. This study be replicated with a larger group of teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers to compare their beliefs, attitudes, and values regarding internal instructional supervision in Kenyan public secondary schools. Research questions pertinent to these areas could include the following as they relate to public secondary schools:

1. What beliefs do teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers hold regarding internal instructional supervision?
2. What are the attitudes of teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers toward internal instructional supervision?
3. What values do teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers attach to internal instructional supervision?
4. What are the similarities and differences regarding teachers', headteachers', and senior government education officers' beliefs, attitudes, and values relative to internal instructional supervision?

It is suggested that each of these areas could benefit from thick, ethnographic inquiries. Additionally, specific questionnaires could be developed which would be used to survey teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers in a like manner and on similar dimensions relating to the three major areas.

A study that involves more in-depth examination of the three groups of professionals' attitudes, beliefs, and values regarding internal instructional supervision processes may help determine why the gaps in their perceptions of the meaning of instructional supervision exist and what steps could be taken to ameliorate the differences. If the gaps can be closed, teachers and internal instructional supervisors, especially should be better able to work together for the best possible instructional supervision program.

The exploratory nature of such a study may provide attitudinal insight into specific factors contributing to teachers', headteachers', and senior government education officers' satisfaction with the practice of internal instructional supervision in Kenyan public secondary schools. Furthermore, if the three groups of professionals are used in the study, a more complete picture of the full value of internal instructional supervision would emerge. If supervision practices are to be more than ritual, it requires the common understanding of the values, attitudes, and beliefs regarding internal instructional supervision. Additionally, by analyzing the attitudes, beliefs, and values teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers have relative to internal instructional supervision, such a study may be helpful in giving the education profession a clearer picture of what makes an effective internal instructional supervision practice.

Personal Reflections

The findings of this study reflected what I had experienced as a teacher in several high schools in Kenya. The experience of designing and conducting the study that would produce usable information has been most rewarding. I intend to share my findings with Kenyan secondary school teachers and headteachers; staff development providers for teachers and headteachers; the Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology senior education officers; the Teachers Service Commission (TSC); and the Kenya

Institute of Education (KIE) senior personnel. I hope that the proposed strategies toward the improvement of the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision and staff development will be of interest to practicing teachers and headteachers. It is critical to bridge the gap between the professional needs of teachers and headteachers and student achievement.

I have experienced changes in my personal beliefs about collecting research data from my home country. At the beginning of the study I was convinced the data collection process would be smooth. However, as I began to collect research data, interacting with teachers, headteachers, and senior government education officers, I experienced some difficulties: the lack of meaningful cooperation from some participants, the failure to have questionnaire surveys returned by some participants, and what appeared to be the deliberate failure of some participants to honor agreed-upon appointments. As I began to analyze and interpret the data, I discovered numerous questions unanswered in the questionnaire surveys. I also learnt that some practicing teachers had not even seen a copy of *A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya* (the *Heads' Manual*). This is an important government professional document that headteachers are expected to make available to all members of the teaching staff in their schools to enlighten them about the responsibilities of the various individuals in the school.

After writing the findings of this study, I realized that some of the feelings that I shared with some of the participants about the problems they experienced relative to internal instructional supervision practices as well as staff development in Kenyan public secondary schools involved the very contextual problems that (a) have been a major source of teachers' negativity toward instructional supervision, (b) often interfered with teacher and headteacher performance and (c) perhaps led to the student violence that has rocked many Kenyan secondary schools in the recent past. I can speculate that a major source of teachers' negativity toward supervision was the supervisors' unprofessional conducts. As Wafula (2001) noted, one major problem prevalent in many Kenyan schools is the gap between the headteachers and teachers, with some headteachers being inaccessible to their teachers or hardly ever entering the staff rooms to dialogue with teachers. Obviously, such gaps would create tensions between teachers and headteachers to the extent that supervisory relationships between the two groups of professionals are constrained. In such cases, teachers are likely to be negative toward headteachers' supervisory activities.

I would also speculate that teachers regard the criteria for assessing their instructional work as bureaucratic requirements and something to work around rather than work towards. They seemingly see headteachers as individuals whose supervisory role includes policing teachers' work. It is not surprising that teachers' view of instructional supervision differs from that of headteachers and senior education officers, who are expected to reinforce bureaucratic policies in the schools through inspection.

There are also some methodological lessons that I learnt from this study. My study employed three major strategies for collecting data: questionnaire surveys, interviews, and analysis of documents. Through these strategies I gathered a huge amount of data that demanded a great deal of time to process. An attempt to have interview audiotapes transcribed by Canadian transcribers failed as they could not cope with foreign accents in the tapes, and, as a result, I had to transcribe the tapes myself. However, I learnt how to use a transcriber effectively.

In reflecting on the findings, it is important to bear in mind that they were based on participants' views about internal instructional supervision practices and procedures as well as staff development in public secondary schools—national, provincial, district—in which headteachers, as instructional supervisors, perform both summative and formative evaluations of their teachers. This dual function of the headteachers impacts upon their own perceptions regarding practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision and their degree of satisfaction with the practices. Undoubtedly, this dual function also impacts upon teachers' perceptions of practices of instructional supervision and staff development.

It was not the intention of this study to either address all the problems associated with internal instructional supervision and staff development for secondary teachers and headteachers in Kenya or to provide definitive answers to the many problems associated with supervision of instruction and staff development for these two groups of professionals. However, this study has shed light on the major constraints of internal instructional supervision and staff development for teachers and headteachers in public secondary schools in Kenya. In the process it has offered some strategies to improve the practices of internal instructional supervision and staff development programs for these professionals. However, to understand the notion of the problems associated with instructional supervision and staff development for secondary teachers and headteachers in Kenya, multiple contexts such as political, economic, socio-cultural, and educational must be considered.

The findings of this study are likely to provide practicing teachers, headteachers, policymakers, and researchers with more questions than answers. Obviously, these are the questions that are important to all those who care about the practices of internal instructional supervision and staff development and overall education quality.

Replication of the Study

This study was conducted only for public secondary schools in Kenya. A replication of this study with primary school teachers, headteachers, and education officers in charge of primary education to determine their perceptions about the practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision and staff development is needed. Such a study may (a) provide additional insight into and a more complete picture regarding supervision and staff development practices and the unique factors associated with the practices; (b) further identify and define the professional benefits of instructional supervision and staff development to those who were observed in the current study to foster a positive and supportive climate and at the same time provide maximum impact on teachers' success and, ultimately, student success; and (c) determine whether the findings are representative of the style orientations of headteachers in general in instructional supervision. If the results are similar to those of the current study, the implications of this study will be broader. Various types of public primary schools in terms of their size and their location (urban or rural), whether boarding or day and whether mixed or single-sex, may be included in the study.

This study has been an enriching experience for me. I have come to conclude that, to acquire new knowledge, one must be ready to face and to accommodate surprises, to explore, to face challenges with confidence, and to be willing to learn. I have been extremely impressed by many aspects of my study. For example, the opportunity to interact, on a none-to-one basis, with some of my participants, especially senior government education officers, was particularly rewarding. I was able to have a glimpse of some of their busy schedules and challenges. They provided rich insights into the dynamics of the Kenyan education system—the challenges faced by the various stakeholders in ensuring education quality and the their role in implementing educational policies and practices.

National Goals of Education

The one aspect of my study that impressed me most and of which I am very proud was the realization that Kenya has specific national goals of education. As spelt out in Ministry of Education (1994), Kenya's education must (a) foster national unity; (b) foster national development; (c) foster, develop, and communicate the rich and varied cultures of Kenya; (d) prepare and equip the Kenyan youth with the knowledge, skills, and experience necessary to enable them collectively to play an effective role in the life of the nation whist ensuring opportunities are provided for the full development of individual talents; (e) promote social justice and morality by instilling the right attitudes necessary for training in social obligations and responsibilities; and (f) foster positive attitudes and consciousness towards other nations. It was extremely rewarding to note that some of my findings and recommendations fitted very well with some of our national goals of education.

A Final Word

Although this study was in no way definitive, it provided the groundwork and some additional insight for understanding the present nature of practices and procedures of internal instructional supervision and staff development in public secondary schools in Kenya. It demonstrates for the first time the perceptions of secondary teachers, secondary headteachers, and senior government education officers regarding internal instructional supervision and staff development practices and procedures. The results of this study provide a basis for headteachers to recognize the need to involve teachers more effectively in decisions regarding instructional supervision practices and procedures and staff development in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning.

If internal instructional supervision and staff development practices have to play a role in instructional improvement, they must identify the instructional practices and staff development strategies in need of improvement and provide remedial assistance to teachers to make that improvement. The message is simple: Internal instructional supervisors must be provided with opportunities for in-service training to work with teachers effectively regarding teaching-learning process and devote time for meaningful supervision of instruction. Furthermore, teachers must be involved and must have sufficient input into the instructional supervision and staff development practices in use in their schools.

It is possible to argue that the current study, along with the work of Blasé and Blasé (1999a), points to a theory of instructional leadership that develops schools as learning communities. Both studies point to instructional leadership requiring school principals to facilitate collaborative, non-threatening partnerships with teachers that encourage openness, create a willingness to experiment, and provide freedom to make and to admit mistakes in the interest of instructional improvement for the benefit of students.

To evaluate the implications of this study requires attention to two critical issues: first, the extent to which instructional supervision and staff development are important development can occur through the Ministry of Education intervention; and, second, the extent to which teachers and headteachers support educational initiatives and reforms effectively.

Finally, this study is only a small step toward understanding the notions of instructional supervision and staff development practices in Kenyan schooling. Instructional supervision and staff development are complex processes involving multiple layers and key players. Understanding these processes and how they relate to one another requires a much more in-depth investigation than can be done in a study of this scope. In this study I have merely attempted to determine the current state of internal instructional supervision and staff development in Kenyan public secondary schools as perceived by teachers, headteachers, and senior government

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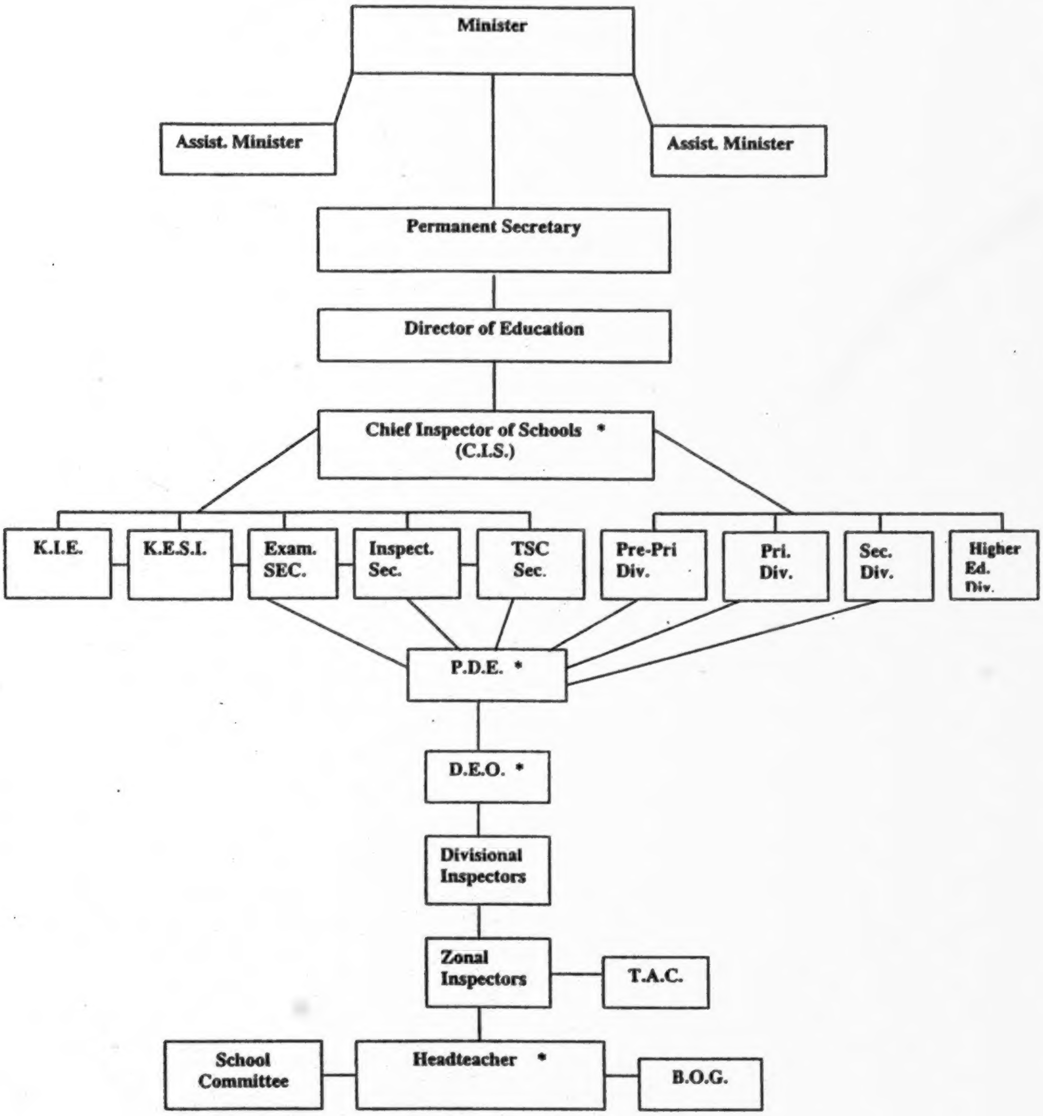
APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE KENYA MINISTRY OF EDUCATION


Minister
Assist. Minister
Assist. Minister
Permanent Secretary
Director of Education
Chief Inspector of Schools *
(C.I.S.)
K.I.E.
K.E.S.I.
Exam. SEC.
Inspect. Sec.
TSC Sec.
Pre-Pri Div.
Pri. Div.
Sec. Div.
Higher Ed. Div.
P.D.E. *
D.E.O. *
Divisional Inspectors
Zonal Inspectors
T.A.C.
School Committee
Headteacher *
B.O.G.

Source: Ministry of Education. (1994). *Education in Kenya: Information handbook.* Nairobi, Kenya: Jomo Kenyatta Foundation.

K.I.E. – Kenya Institute of Education
- Responsible for of teacher education
- Designs and produces syllabuses for primary and secondary schools

K.E.S I – Kenya Education Staff institute
- Responsible for the training of educational managers, including headteachers

T.S.C. – Teachers Service Commission
- Employer of teachers in public schools and teachers colleges

P.D.E. – Provincial Director of Education
- In-charge of matters relating to education in the province
- Agent of the TSC

D.E.O. – District Education Office
- In-charge of matters relating to education in the district
- An agent of the TSC

B.O.G. – Board of Governors
- Responsible for the management of secondary school
- An agent of the TSC

P.T.A. – Parent Teachers Association
- Formed by some elected parents of pupils in a secondary school to assist the B.O.G. to manage the school

T.A.C. – Teachers Advisory Centre
- Produces instructional materials for schools

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADTEACHERS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADTEACHERS

This questionnaire consists of several sections each of which has its own set of directions. Either circle your responses or write the information, as required. If additional space is required, please use additional paper.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND DATA

1. Please circle all that apply to your school:

(a) National (b) Provincial (c) District
(d) Boys boarding (e) Boys day
(f) Girls boarding (g) Girls day
(h) Mixed boarding (i) Mixed day (j) Mixed boarding and day
(k) Other (Please specify): ______________________________

2. What is the total number of pupils in your school? ______

3. How many teachers are in your school? ______

4. What is your age on 1 February 2000? Please circle one only.

(a) under 30 years (b) 30 – 40 (c) 41 – 50 (d) over 50

5. What is your sex? (a) male (b) female

6. What is your highest professional/academic qualification? Please circle one only.

(a) Diploma/S1 (b) Approved Graduate Teacher/A.T.S. (c) Bachelor of Education Degree
(d) Graduate Approved Teacher 1 (G.A.T 1) (e) Bachelor of Arts/Science
(f) Postgraduate Diploma in Education
(g) Other (Please specify): ______________________________

7. Please circle all the administrative responsibilities in education that you have held.

(a) District Education Officer (D.E.O.) (b) Senior Inspector of Schools (c) Inspector of Schools
(g) Other (Please specify): ______________________________

8. For how long have you served as a headteacher?

(a) less than 1 year (b) 1 – 2 years (c) 3 – 4 years (d) 5 – 6 years
(e) 7 – 8 years (f) 9 – 10 years (g) over 10 years

9. For how long have you served as a headteacher at your present school?

(a) less than 1 year (b) 1 – 2 years (c) 3 – 4 years (d) 5 – 6 years
(e) 7 – 8 years (f) 9 – 10 years (g) over 10 years

SECTION 2: PURPOSE OF INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Listed below are statements that may be used to describe the purposes of internal instructional supervision. On the Degree of Agreement scale, please rate (by circling the appropriate number on each purpose) the degree to which you agree with each statement. On the Importance scale, please rate how much importance you believe you should give to each purpose of instructional supervision.

Overall, internal instructional supervision in this school serves the following purposes:	5 Strongly agree 4 Agree 3 Uncertain 2 Disagree 1 Strongly disagree NA Not applicable **Level of agreement**	5 Very great 4 Great 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No importance **Importance**
FOR HEADTEACHERS ONLY		
1. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
2. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding:	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(a) promotion	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(b) demotion	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(c) dismissal	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(d) other (Please specify):		
(i) ________________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(ii) ________________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
3. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
FOR BOTH HEADTEACHERS AND TEACHERS		
4. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
5. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
FOR TEACHERS ONLY		
6. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
7. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
8. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
9. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
10. helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 3: FOCI OF INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Listed below are statements that describe the foci of internal instructional supervision. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate (a) the extent to which each aspect is actually (EXISING) examined by you as an internal instructional supervisor, and (b) the extent to which you believe you should (PREFERRED) examine each aspect by circling responses according to the following key:

5 Very frequently examined
4 Often examined
3 Sometimes examined
2 Rarely examined
1 Never examined
NA Not applicable

Foci of internal instructional supervision	Existing extent	Preferred extent
1. Teacher's overall organization of lessons	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
2. Teacher's organization of the subject matter	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
6. Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
7. Teacher's concern with the pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
9. Achievement of course objectives	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
10. Teacher's personality	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
12. Availability of properly organized pupils' progress records	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
13. Availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
14. Teacher's dress and appearance	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
18. Teacher's classroom management	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
20. Teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
22. Teacher-pupil relationships	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
23. Others (please specify):		
(i) ________________________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
(ii)________________________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA

SECTION 4: PRACTICES OF INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Stated below are statements that may be used to describe instructional supervision practices as conducted by headteachers. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate the importance you, as an internal instructional supervisor, presently (EXISING) gives to each practice and the importance you should (PREFERRED) give to each practice by circling responses according to the following key:

5 Great
4 High
3 Moderate
2 Some
1 No importance

Supervisory practices	Importance of practice	
	Existing	Preferred
ORIENTATION		
1. Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
3. Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
4. Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory program	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
5. Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
6. Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
DATA GATHERING		
7. Using examination/test results as an indicator of teacher performance	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers performance through face-to-face interviews	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (self-evaluation)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
FOLLOW-UP/SUPPORT		
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
16. Recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 5: DOCUMENTS AND GUIDELINES

Listed below are documents that may influence internal instructional supervision practices in secondary schools. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate – by circling the appropriate number – the degree of influence which the documents have on your internal instructional supervisory role.

Documents	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No influence **Influence**
1. The TSC Code of Regulations	5 4 3 2 1
2. The Heads Manual	5 4 3 2 1
3. Policy memos from the Ministry of Education headquarters	5 4 3 2 1
4. Policy memos from the Provincial Director of Education (PDE)	5 4 3 2 1
5. Policy memos from the District Education Officer (DEO)	5 4 3 2 1
6. The Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents	5 4 3 2 1
7. The Kenya Union of Teachers (KNUT) documents	5 4 3 2 1
8. The Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) documents	5 4 3 2 1
9. Documents from Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs)	5 4 3 2 1
10. Others (Please specify):	5 4 3 2 1
(a) ______________________	5 4 3 2 1
(b) ______________________	5 4 3 2 1

11. The following aspects are identified in *A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools on Kenya* which the headteacher can use when checking teaching standards. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate the importance you, as an internal instructional supervisor, presently (EXISTING) give to each aspect and the importance you should (PREFERRED) give to each aspect by circling responses according to the following key:

Aspects in *A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya*	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate **Importance of existing aspect**	2 Some 1 No importance **Importance of preferred aspect**
(a) "Schemes of work" (i.e., overall planning of each subject throughout the term)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(b) "Lesson notes" (i.e., notes kept by teachers)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(c) "Records of work done" (i.e., teachers' weekly record of topics covered and students' activities)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(d) "Pupils' exercise books" (i.e., the actual workbooks of students)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(e) "Actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers."	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 6: SKILLS AND ATTRIBUTES OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

Listed below are statements that to describe the skills and attributes that may be needed by headteachers to perform instructional supervision. On the Importance scale, please rate – by circling the appropriate number on each skill and attribute – how important you feel that skill or attribute is to your success in instructional supervisory role. On the Personal Needs scale, please rate the degree to which you feel a need for further preparation in order to be as effective as you like to be in your instructional supervisory role.

Skills and attributes	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No importance **Importance**	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 None **Need for further preparation**
1. Instructional problem-solving	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
2. Ability to communicate effectively	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
3. Skills in building upon strengths of staff members	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
4. Skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
6. Ability to develop interpersonal relations	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
8. Ability to analyze teaching	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
10. Skills in holding one-to-one conferences	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
12. Ability to analyze complex problems	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
13. Ability to do long-range planning	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
16. Others (Please specify):		
(a) ______________________________ ______________________________	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(b) ______________________________ ______________________________	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 7: TYPES OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

Listed below are five types of personnel who may assist headteachers in internal instructional supervision. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate the extent to which each type of personnel is actually (EXISTING) involved in instructional supervision and the extent to which each type of personnel should be (PREFERRED) involved in instructional supervision by circling responses according to the following key:

Types of personnel	5 Always involved 4 Frequently involved 3 Occasionally involved **Existing extent**	2 Seldom involved 1 Never involved NA Not applicable **Preferred extent**
1. Headteacher	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
2. Deputy headteacher	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
3. Department heads	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
4. Subject heads	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
5. Colleagues	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
6. Teachers themselves (self-supervision)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 8: DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHERS

1. Identify the professional activities in which you have participated since you became a headteacher. Please tick all those that apply to you.

    (a) _____ workshops organized by the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE)
    (b) _____ workshops organized by the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI)
    (c) _____ workshops organized by the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC)
    (d) _____ workshops organized by the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT)
    (e) Other types of professional activities (Please specify):

        (i) ______________________________
        ____
        (ii) ______________________________
        ____

2. Have you undertaken any in-service education courses in instructional supervision?

    (a) No
    (b) Yes

3. If the answer to question 2 above is "Yes" please indicate where you undertook the courses and the benefits from such courses.

    (i) ______________________________
    ____
    (ii) ______________________________
    ____
    (iii) ______________________________
    ____

SECTION 9: DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHERS

Listed below are aspects of the role of the headteachers in promotion of staff developments in schools. On the Level of Agreement scale, based on the actual situation in your school, please rate (by circling the appropriate number on each role) the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement. On the Importance scale, please rate (by circling the appropriate number) how much importance you feel you should give to each role in the instructional supervision process.

In general, my role as a headteacher in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 Strongly agree 4 Agree 3 Uncertain 2 Disagree 1 Strongly disagree NA Not applicable **Level of agreement**	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No importance **Importance**
1. encouraging inter-school teacher visitations	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
2. providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and work shops	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
3. planning staff development, taking into account needs and interests of individual teachers	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
4. acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletter	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
5. encouraging teachers to have plans for continuing staff development	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
6. planning for continuing staff development activities	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
7. providing information about staff development programs for teachers to take	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
8. providing opportunities for teachers to assume leadership	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
9. recommending key teachers for promotion	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
10. encouraging teachers to engage in self-assessment	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
11. offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
12. advising teachers on how to go about interviews for promotions organized by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
13. providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
14. assessing in-service needs for teachers	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
15. assisting teachers in setting realistic and appropriate goals for professional growth	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
16. others (please specify):		
(a) ______________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(b) ______________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 10: GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What are the two major advantages of present internal instructional supervision practices?

   1. ______________________________
   2. ______________________________

2. What are the two major problems associated internal instructional supervision practices?

   1. ______________________________
   2. ______________________________

3. What changes should be made in the present internal instructional supervision practices to make them more effective? Explain why you would want these changes on the back of this page.

   1. ______________________________
   2. ______________________________

4. What do you consider to be the main barrier to staff development for headteachers?

   ____

5. What do you consider to be the main barrier to staff development for teachers in your school?

   ____

6. How satisfied are you with the following aspects of internal instructional supervision practices in your school? Please indicate your response by circling the appropriate number.

5 Highly satisfied — 2 Somewhat dissatisfied
4 Somewhat satisfied — 1 Highly dissatisfied
3 Undecided — NA Not applicable

(a) The overall quality of internal instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(b) The administrative support to internal instructional supervision program	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(c) The general organization of internal instructional supervision program	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(d) The extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(e) The extent to which the headteacher's supervisory strategies are understood by teachers	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(f) The extent to which the headteacher is objective in collecting supervisory information on teachers	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(g) The availability of support documents relevant to internal instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(h) The adequacy of support documents relevant to internal instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(i) The existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(j) The adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor	5	4	3	2	1	NA

7. If you wish to make any other comments regarding internal instructional supervision practices or about this study, please do so on the back of this page

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

This questionnaire consists of several sections each of which has its own set of directions. Either circle your responses or write the information, as required. If additional space is required, please use additional paper.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND DATA

1. Please circle all that apply to your school:

(a) National (b) Provincial (c) District
(d) Boys boarding (e) Boys day
(f) Girls boarding (g) Girls day
(h) Mixed boarding (i) Mixed day (j) Mixed boarding and day
(k) Other (Please specify): ____

2. What is the total number of pupils in your school? ______

3. How many teachers are in your school? ______

4. What is your age on 1 February 2000? Please circle one only.

(a) under 30 years (b) 30 – 40 (c) 41 – 50 (d) over 50

5. What is your sex? (a) male (b) female

6. What is your highest professional/academic qualification? Please circle one only.

(a) Diploma/S1 (b) Approved Graduate Teacher/A.T.S. (c) Bachelor of Education Degree
(d) Graduate Approved Teacher 1 (G.A.T 1) (e) Bachelor of Arts/Science
(f) Postgraduate Diploma in Education
(g) Other (Please specify): ____

7. Please circle all the administrative responsibilities in education that you have held.

(a) District Education Officer (D.E.O.) (b) Senior Inspector of Schools (c) Inspector of Schools
(g) Other (Please specify): ____

8. For how long have you served as a teacher?

(a) less than 1 year (b) 1 – 2 years (c) 3 – 4 years (d) 5 – 6 years
(e) 7 – 8 years (f) 9 – 10 years (g) over 10 years

9. For how long have you served as a teacher at your present school?

(a) less than 1 year (b) 1 – 2 years (c) 3 – 4 years (d) 5 – 6 years
(e) 7 – 8 years (f) 9 – 10 years (g) over 10 years

SECTION 2: PURPOSE OF INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Listed below are statements that may be used to describe the purposes of internal instructional supervision. On the Degree of Agreement scale, please rate (by circling the appropriate number on each purpose) the degree to which you agree with each statement. On the Importance scale, please rate how much importance you believe your headteacher should give to each purpose of instructional supervision.

Overall, internal instructional supervision in this school serves the following purposes:	5 Strongly agree 4 Agree 3 Uncertain 2 Disagree 1 Strongly disagree NA Not applicable **Level of agreement**	5 Very great 4 Great 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No importance **Importance**
FOR HEADTEACHERS ONLY		
1. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
2. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding:	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(a) promotion	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(b) demotion	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(c) dismissal	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(d) other (Please specify):		
(i) ______________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(ii) ______________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
3. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are beingrealized	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
FOR BOTH HEADTEACHERS AND TEACHERS		
4. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
5. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
FOR TEACHERS ONLY		
6. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
7. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
8. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
9. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
10. helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 3: FOCI OF INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Listed below are statements that describe the foci of internal instructional supervision. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate (a) the extent to which each aspect is actually (EXISING) examined by your headteacher as an internal instructional supervisor, and (b) the extent to which you believe your headteacher should (PREFERRED) examine each aspect by circling responses according to the following key:

Foci of internal instructional supervision	5 Very frequently examined 4 Often examined 3 Sometimes examined **Existing extent**	2 Rarely examined 1 Never examined NA Not applicable **Preferred extent**
1. Teacher's overall organization of lessons	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
2. Teacher's organization of the subject matter	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
6. Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
7. Teacher's concern with the pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
9. Achievement of course objectives	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
10. Teacher's personality	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
12. Availability of properly organized pupils' progress records	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
13. Availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
14. Teacher's dress and appearance	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
18. Teacher's classroom management	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
20. Teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
22. Teacher-pupil relationships	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
23. Others (please specify):		
(i) ______________________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA
(ii)______________________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1 NA

SECTION 4: PRACTICES OF INTERNAL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Stated below are statements that may be used to describe instructional supervision practices as conducted by headteachers. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate the importance your headteacher , as an internal instructional supervisor, presently (EXISING) gives to each practice and the importance your headteacher should (PREFERRED) give to each practice by circling responses according to the following key:

5 Great
4 High
3 Moderate
2 Some
1 No importance

Supervisory practices	Importance of practice	
	Existing	Preferred
ORIENTATION		
1. Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
3. Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
4. Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory program	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
5. Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
6. Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
DATA GATHERING		
7. Using examination/test results as an indicator of teacher performance	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers performance through face-to-face interviews	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (self-evaluation)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
FOLLOW-UP/SUPPORT		
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
16. Recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 5: DOCUMENTS AND GUIDELINES

Listed below are documents that may influence internal instructional supervision practices in secondary schools. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate – by circling the appropriate number – the degree of influence which you believe the documents have on your role as a supervisee:

Documents	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No influence **Influence**
1. The TSC Code of Regulations	5 4 3 2 1
2. The Heads Manual	5 4 3 2 1
3. Policy memos from the Ministry of Education headquarters	5 4 3 2 1
4. Policy memos from the Provincial Director of Education (PDE)	5 4 3 2 1
5. Policy memos from the District Education Officer (DEO)	5 4 3 2 1
6. The Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents	5 4 3 2 1
7. The Kenya Union of Teachers (KNUT) documents	5 4 3 2 1
8. The Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) documents	5 4 3 2 1
9. Documents from Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs)	5 4 3 2 1
10. Others (Please specify):	5 4 3 2 1
(a) ______________________	5 4 3 2 1
(b) ______________________	5 4 3 2 1

11. The following aspects are identified in *A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools on Kenya* which the headteacher can use when checking teaching standards. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate the importance your headteacher, as an internal instructional supervisor, presently (EXISTING) gives to each aspect and the importance your headteacher should (PREFERRED) give to each aspect by circling responses according to the following key:

Aspects in *A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya*	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate **Importance of existing aspect**	2 Some 1 No importance **Importance of preferred aspect**
(a) "Schemes of work" (i.e., overall planning of each subject throughout the term)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(b) "Lesson notes" (i.e., notes kept by teachers)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(c) "Records of work done" (i.e., teachers' weekly record of topics covered and students' activities)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(d) "Pupils' exercise books" (i.e., the actual workbooks of students)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(e) "Actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 6: SKILLS AND ATTRIBUTES OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

Listed below are statements that to describe the skills and attributes that may be needed by headteachers to perform instructional supervision. On the Importance scale, please rate – by circling the appropriate number on each skill and attribute – how important you feel that skill or attribute is to your headteacher's success in instructional supervisory role. On the Personal Needs scale, please rate the degree to which you feel a need for your headteacher to be prepared in order to become a more efficient instructional supervisor.

Skills and attributes	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No importance **Importance**	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 None **Need for further preparation**
1. Instructional problem-solving	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
2. Ability to communicate effectively	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
3. Skills in building upon strengths of staff members	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
4. Skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
6. Ability to develop interpersonal relations	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
8. Ability to analyze teaching	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
10. Skills in holding one-to-one conferences	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
12. Ability to analyze complex problems	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
13. Ability to do long-range planning	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
16. Others (Please specify):		
(a) ______________________ ______________________	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
(b) ______________________ ______________________	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 7: TYPES OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

Listed below are five types of personnel who may assist headteachers in internal instructional supervision. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate the extent to which each type of personnel is actually (EXISTING) involved in instructional supervision and the extent to which each type of personnel should be (PREFERRED) involved in instructional supervision by circling responses according to the following key:

Types of personnel	5 Always involved 4 Frequently involved 3 Occasionally involved **Existing extent**	2 Seldom involved 1 Never involved NA Not applicable **Preferred extent**
1. Headteacher	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
2. Deputy headteacher	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
3. Department heads	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
4. Subject heads	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
5. Colleagues	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
6. Teachers themselves (self-supervision)	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 8: DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHERS

1. Identify the professional activities in which you have participated since you became a teacher. Please tick all those that apply to you.

   (a) _____ workshops organized by the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE)
   (b) _____ workshops organized by the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI)
   (c) _____ workshops organized by the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC)
   (d) _____ workshops organized by the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT)
   (e) Other types of professional activities (Please specify):
   (i) ________________________________
   ____
   (ii) ________________________________
   ____

2. Have you undertaken any in-service education courses in instructional supervision?

   (a) No
   (b) Yes

3. If the answer to question 2 above is "Yes" please indicate where you undertook the courses and the benefits from such courses.

   (i) ________________________________
   ____
   (ii) ________________________________
   ____
   (iii) ________________________________
   ____

SECTION 9: DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHERS

Listed below are aspects of the role of the headteachers in promotion of staff developments in schools. On the Level of Agreement scale, based on the actual situation in your school, please rate (by circling the appropriate number on each role) the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement. On the Importance scale, please rate (by circling the appropriate number) how much importance you feel your headteacher should give to each role in the supervision process.

In general, my headteacher's role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 Strongly agree 4 Agree 3 Uncertain 2 Disagree 1 Strongly disagree NA Not applicable	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No importance
	Level of agreement	**Importance**
1. encouraging inter-school teacher visitations	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
2. providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and work shops	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
3. planning staff development, taking into account needs and interests of individual teachers	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
4. acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletter	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
5. encouraging teachers to have plans for continuing staff development	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
6. planning for continuing staff development activities	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
7. providing information about staff development programs for teachers to take	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
8. providing opportunities for teachers to assume leadership	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
9. recommending key teachers for promotion	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
10. encouraging teachers to engage in self-assessment	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
11. offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
12. advising teachers on how to go about interviews for promotions organized by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
13. providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
14. assessing in-service needs for teachers	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
15. assisting teachers in setting realistic and appropriate goals for professional growth	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
16. others (please specify):		
(a) ____________________ ____________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1
(b) ____________________ ____________________	5 4 3 2 1 NA	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 10: GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What are the two major advantages of present internal instructional supervision practices?
   1. ____________________
   2. ____________________

2. What are the two major problems associated internal instructional supervision practices?
   1. ____________________
   2. ____________________

3. What changes should be made in the present internal instructional supervision practices to make them more effective? Explain why you would want these changes on the back of this page.
   1. ____________________
   2. ____________________

4. What do you consider to be the main barrier to staff development for headteachers?

   ____

5. What do you consider to be the main barrier to staff development for teachers in your school?

   ____

6. How satisfied are you with the following aspects of internal instructional supervision practices in your school? Please indicate your response by circling the appropriate number.

	5 Highly satisfied 4 Somewhat satisfied 3 Undecided	2 Somewhat dissatisfied 1 Highly dissatisfied NA Not applicable

(a) The overall quality of internal instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(b) The administrative support to internal instructional supervision program	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(c) The general organization of internal instructional supervision program	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(d) The extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(e) The extent to which the headteacher's supervisory strategies are understood by teachers	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(f) The extent to which the headteacher is objective in collecting supervisory information on teachers	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(g) The availability of support documents relevant to internal instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(h) The adequacy of support documents relevant to internal instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(i) The existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor	5	4	3	2	1	NA
(j) The adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor	5	4	3	2	1	NA

7. If you wish to make any other comments regarding internal instructional supervision practices or about this study, please do so on the back of this page

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS

Draft Interview Protocol For Teachers and Headteachers

1. What do you see as the major purposes and advantages of internal instructional supervision conducted by headteachers in public secondary schools in Kenya?
2. What are the foci of internal instructional supervision as conducted in your school?
3. (a) Who are actually involved in conducting internal instructional supervision in your school?
   (b) Do you consider that headteachers are sufficiently prepared to perform this role?
   (c) How could their performance be improved?
4. What policy documents and guidelines are used to facilitate internal instructional supervision in your school?
5. What changes, if any, do you consider would be desired in current official policies regarding internal instructional supervision?
6. How is the information obtained by headteachers in internal instructional supervision used?
7. (a) Do you consider that staff development for headteachers and teachers is sufficiently well conducted in public secondary schools?
   (b) How could this be improved?
8. What does instructional supervision mean to you?
9. Any other comments?

Draft Interview Protocol For District Education Officers, Provincial Directors of Education, and the Chief Inspector of Schools

2. What do you see as the major purposes of internal instructional supervision conducted by headteachers in public secondary schools in Kenya?
3. (a) Do you consider that headteachers are sufficiently prepared to perform this role?

   (b) How could their performance be improved?
4. What changes, if any, do you consider would be desired in current official policies regarding internal instructional supervision?
5. How is the information obtained by headteachers in internal instructional supervision used by your office?
5. (a) Do you consider that staff development for headteachers and teachers is sufficiently well conducted in public secondary schools?

   (b) How could this be improved?
6. What does instructional supervision mean to you?
7. Any other comments?

APPENDIX E

TABLES

Table 4.1

Background Data of Schools by Number of Teachers, Headteachers and Pupils

	Teachers (n=136)			Headteachers (n=56)			Both groups (n=192)		
	Range	Mean	S.D.	Range	Mean	S.D.	Range	Mean	S.D.
Number of pupils	104 - 1000	461.3	209.9	10 - 700	271.1	174.0	10 - 1000	405.4	217.7
Number of teachers	9 - 90	29.5	13.3	7 - 45	17.4	9.4	7 - 90	26.0	13.5

Table 4.2

Description of Schools by Teachers and Headteachers

School description	Teachers (n=136)		Headteachers (n=56)		Total (n=192)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
National	3	2.2	-	-	3	1.6
National boys boarding	5	3.7	-	-	5	2.6
Provincial	5	3.7	3	5.4	8	4.2
Provincial boys boarding	31	22.8	4	7.1	35	18.1
Provincial girls boarding	14	10.3	5	8.9	19	9.9
Provincial mixed boarding	4	2.9	1	1.8	3	1.6
Provincial boys day and boarding	4	2.9	-	-	4	2.1
Provincial mixed day and boarding	3	2.2	5	8.9	8	4.2
Provincial boys day	7	5.1	2	3.6	9	4.6
Provincial mixed day	2	1.5	1	1.8	3	1.6
District	-	-	3	5.4	3	1.6
District boys boarding	-	-	2	3.6	2	1.0
District girls boarding	1	0.7	1	1.8	2	1.0
District boys day	3	2.2	-	-	3	1.6
District girls day	5	3.7	2	3.6	7	3.6
District mixed day	11	8.0	4	7.1	15	7.8
District boys boarding and day	-	-	1	1.8	1	0.5
District mixed boarding and day	7	5.1	7	12.5	14	7.3
Mixed day	5	3.7	6	10.7	11	5.7
Mixed boarding and day	6	4.4	-	-	6	3.1
Boys boarding	4	2.9	-	-	4	2.1
Girls boarding	6	4.4	2	3.6	8	4.2
Mixed boarding	1	0.7	4	7.1	5	2.6
Boys day	2	1.5	1	1.8	2	1.6
Girls day	3	2.2	1	1.8	4	2.1
No indication	4	2.9	1	1.8	5	2.6

Table 4.3

Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers and Headteachers by Age

	Teachers		Headteachers		Both groups	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Under 30 years	13	9.6	-	-	13	6.8
30 - 40	100	73.5	20	35.7	120	62.5
41 - 50	21	15.4	32	57.1	53	27.6
Over 50	2	1.5	4	7.1	6	3.1
Total	136	100.0	56	100.0	192	100.0

Table 4.4

Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers and Headteachers by Sex

	Teachers		Headteachers		Both groups	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Male	82	62.1	40	72.7	122	65.2
Female	50	37.9	15	27.3	65	34.8
Total	132	100.0	55	100.0	187	100.0

Table 4.5

Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers and Headteachers by Professional/Academic Qualifications

	Teachers		Headteachers		Both groups	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Diploma/S1	21	15.6	-	-	21	11.0
Approved Graduate Teacher/ A.T.S.	22	16.3	7	12.5	29	15.2
Bachelor of Education	50	37.0	22	39.3	72	37.7
Graduate Approved Teacher 1 (G.A.T. 1)	31	23.0	19	33.9	50	26.2
Bachelor of Arts/Science	-	-	1	1.8	1	0.5
Postgraduate Diploma in Education	8	5.9	1	1.8	9	4.7
Other	3	2.2	6	10.7	9	4.7
Total	135	100.0	56	100.0	191	100.0

Table 4.6

Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers and Headteachers by Other Administrative Responsibilities

	Teachers (n=136)		Headteachers (n=56)		Both groups (n=192)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
District Education Officer	1	0.7	-	-	1	0.5
Senior Inspector of schools	-	-	-	-	-	-
Inspector of schools	1	0.7	-	-	1	0.5
Other	36	26.5	17	30.4	53	27.6
Total	38	27.9	17	30.4	55	28.6

Table 4.7

Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers and Headteachers by Length of Service in Present Positions

	Teachers		Headteachers		Both groups	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Less than 1 year	1	0.8	5	8.9	6	3.3
1 - 2 years	-	-	9	16.1	9	5.0
3 - 4 years	9	7.3	7	12.5	16	8.9
5 - 6 years	20	16.1	10	17.9	30	16.7
7 - 8 years	13	10.5	7	12.5	20	11.1
9 - 10 years	30	24.2	5	8.9	35	19.4
Over 10 years	51	41.1	13	23.2	64	35.6
Total	124	100.0	56	100.0	180	100.0

Table 4.8

Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers and Headteachers by Length of Service in Present Position in Present School

	Teachers		Headteachers		Both groups	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Less than 1 year	10	7.9	11	19.6	21	11.5
1 - 2 years	19	15.0	10	17.9	29	15.8
3 - 4 years	23	18.1	7	12.5	30	16.4
5 - 6 years	32	25.2	13	23.2	45	24.6
7 - 8 years	18	14.2	8	14.3	26	14.2
9 - 10 years	13	10.2	-	-	13	7.1
Over 10 years	12	9.4	7	12.5	19	10.4
Total	127	100.0	56	100.0	183	100.0

Table 4.9: Coding Categories Generated to Organize Qualitative Data

Purposes of Internal Instructional Supervision • Student performance • Teacher performance • Curriculum implementation	**Advantages of Internal Instructional Supervision** • Academic progress • Quality of teaching and learning • Monitoring teachers" work • Curriculum and instruction
Foci of Internal Instructional Supervision • Curriculum and instruction • Student success • Teacher performance • Teachers' artifacts of teaching • Human relations	**Degree of Satisfaction With Instructional Supervision** • Reciprocal exchange of instructional information • Timetabling • Departmental staff meetings • Teachers' instructional responsibilities
Problems of Existing Practices and Procedures of Internal Instructional Supervision • Supervision practices • Instructional supervisors • Attitudes toward supervision • Feedback and follow-up	**Suggested Changes For Effectiveness in Practices of Internal Instructional Supervision** • Supervision practices • Instructional supervisors • Attitudes toward supervision • Feedback and follow-up • Collaboration and team work • Foci of supervision • Purposes of supervision
Barriers to Staff Development For Teachers and Headteachers • Resourcing • Policy • Work-load • Staff development opportunities	**Participants' Suggestions For Changes to Staff Development** • Resourcing • Policy • Work-load • In-service training opportunities • Collaboration

Table 4.10

Teachers' Perceptions of Purposes of Internal Instructional Supervision
(N=136)

	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
FOR HEADTEACHERS ONLY														
1. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	15	11.0	15	11.0	3	2.2	1	0.7	1	0.7	101	74.3	4.20	0.93
2. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding:														
(a) promotion	18	13.2	6	4.4	7	5.1	-	-	1	0.7	104	76.5	4.25	1.02
(b) demotion	3	2.2	8	5.9	10	7.4	3	2.2	7	5.1	105	77.2	2.90	1.30
(c) dismissal	2	1.5	1	0.7	8	5.9	7	5.1	8	5.9	110	80.9	2.31	1.19
3. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized	9	6.6	15	11.0	3	2.2	-	-	1	0.7	108	79.4	4.11	0.88
FOR BOTH HEADTEACHERS AND TEACHERS														
4. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	79	58.1	44	32.4	5	3.7	4	2.9	2	1.5	2	1.5	4.45	0.83

continue

table 4.10 (continued)

	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
5. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	65	47.8	55	40.4	8	5.9	3	2.2	1	0.7	4	2.9	4.36	0.76
FOR TEACHERS ONLY														
6. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgements about their teaching	75	55.1	45	33.1	8	5.9	5	3.7	-	-	3	2.2	4.43	0.77
7. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	58	42.6	56	41.2	10	7.4	4	2.9	-	-	8	5.9	4.31	0.75
8. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	69	50.7	45	33.1	16	11.8	2	1.5	1	0.7	3	2.2	4.35	0.81
9. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	51	37.5	50	36.8	11	8.1	16	11.9	3	2.2	5	3.7	3.99	1.08
10. helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	79	58.1	34	25.0	13	9.6	5	3.7	2	1.5	3	2.2	4.38	0.92

Table 4.11

Teachers' Perceptions of Importance Attached to Purposes of Internal Instructional Supervision

(N=136)

	5 very great		4 great		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
FOR HEADTEACHERS ONLY														
1. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	16	11.8	8	5.9	6	4.4	3	2.2	-	-	103	75.7	4.12	1.02
2. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding:														
(a) promotion	10	7.4	14	10.3	1	0.7	3	2.2	3	2.2	105	77.2	3.81	1.28
(b) demotion	2	1.5	4	2.9	10	7.4	7	5.1	8	5.9	105	77.2	2.52	1.21
(c) dismissal	-	-	2	1.5	4	2.9	8	5.9	15	11.0	107	78.7	1.76	0.95
3. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized	8	5.9	10	7.4	4	2.9	2	1.5	3	2.2	109	80.1	3.67	1.30
FOR BOTH HEADTEACHERS AND TEACHERS														
4. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	75	55.1	36	26.5	8	5.9	3	2.2	5	2.2	11	8.1	4.42	0.90

continue

table 4.11 (continued)

	5 very great		4 great		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
5. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	67	49.3	37	27.2	13	9.6	5	3.7	2	1.5	12	8.8	4.31	0.93
FOR TEACHERS ONLY														
6. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgements about their teaching	58	42.6	43	31.6	17	12.5	2	1.5	2	1.5	14	10.3	4.25	0.88
7. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	50	36.8	39	28.7	18	13.2	8	5.9	4	2.9	17	12.5	4.03	1.07
8. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	55	40.4	42	30.9	21	15.4	2	1.5	2	1.5	14	10.3	4.20	0.90
9. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	55	40.4	33	24.3	18	13.2	7	5.1	9	6.6	14	10.3	3.97	1.23
10. helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	72	52.9	25	18.4	13	9.6	8	5.9	4	2.9	14	10.3	4.25	1.10

Table 4.12

Comparison Between Teachers' Level of Agreement With Purposes and Degree of Importance attached to Purposes in Internal Instructional Supervision

	Level of agreement				Degree of importance			
	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
FOR TEACHERS ONLY								
1. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	35	4.20	0.93	8	33	4.12	1.02	6
2. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding:								
(a) promotion	32	4.25	1.02	7	31	3.81	1.28	9
(b) demotion	31	2.90	1.30	11	31	2.52	1.21	11
(c) dismissal	26	2.31	1.19	12	29	1.76	0.95	12
3. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized	28	4.11	0.88	9	27	3.67	1.30	10
FOR BOTH HEADTEACHERS AND TEACHERS								
4. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	134	4.45	0.83	1	125	4.42	0.90	1
5. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	132	4.36	0.78	4	124	4.31	0.93	2

continue

Table 4.12 (continued)

	Level of agreement				Degree of importance			
	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
FOR TEACHERS ONLY								
6. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgements about their teaching	133	4.43	0.77	2	122	4.25	0.88	3.5
7. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	128	4.31	0.75	6	119	4.03	1.07	7
8. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	133	4.35	0.81	5	122	4.20	0.90	5
9. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	131	3.99	1.08	10	122	3.97	1.23	8
10. helps teachers improve their teaching effective-ness	133	4.38	0.92	3	122	4.25	1.10	3.5

Response scale for level of agreement: 5 strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = uncertain, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree
for degree of importance: 5 = very great, 4 = great, 3 = moderate, 2 = some, 1 = no importance

Table 4.13

Headteachers' Perceptions of Purposes of Internal Instructional Supervision
(N=56)

	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
FOR HEADTEACHERS ONLY														
1. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	37	66.1	16	28.6	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.67	0.51
2. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding:														
(a) promotion	35	62.5	14	25.0	-	-	1	1.8	-	-	6	10.7	4.66	0.59
(b) demotion	5	8.9	18	32.1	6	10.7	5	8.9	6	10.7	16	28.6	3.28	1.28
(c) dismissal	5	8.9	15	26.8	2	3.6	5	8.9	8	14.3	21	37.5	3.11	1.45
3. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized	27	48.2	14	25.0	2	3.6	1	1.8	-	-	12	21.4	4.52	0.70
FOR BOTH HEADTEACHERS AND TEACHERS														
4. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	41	73.2	11	19.6	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.72	0.53

continue

table 4.13 (continued)

	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
5. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	42	75.0	10	17.9	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.74	0.52
FOR TEACHERS ONLY														
6. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching	23	41.1	10	17.9	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	22	39.3	4.65	0.54
7. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	19	33.9	13	23.2	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	22	39.3	4.50	0.62
8. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	19	33.9	13	23.2	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	22	39.3	4.50	0.62
9. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	14	25.0	16	28.6	4	7.1	-	-	-	-	22	39.3	4.29	0.68
10. helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	23	41.1	9	16.1	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	22	39.3	4.62	0.60

Table 4.14

Headteachers' Perceptions of Importance Attached to Purposes of Internal Instructional Supervision
(N=56)

	5 very great		4 great		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
FOR HEADTEACHERS ONLY														
1. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	34	60.7	15	26.8	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	6	10.7	4.66	0.52
2. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding:														
(a) promotion	28	50.0	17	30.4	1	1.8	1	1.8	-	-	9	16.1	4.53	0.53
(b) demotion	5	8.9	10	17.9	12	21.4	8	14.3	7	12.7	14	25.0	2.95	1.27
(c) dismissal	5	8.9	6	10.7	13	23.2	6	10.7	10	17.9	16	28.6	2.75	1.33
3. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized	26	46.4	14	25.0	2	3.6	1	1.8	-	-	13	23.2	4.51	0.70
FOR BOTH HEADTEACHERS AND TEACHERS														
4. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	35	62.5	12	21.4	3	5.4	1	1.8	-	-	5	8.9	4.59	0.70

continue

table 4.14 (continued)

	5 very great		4 great		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
5. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	38	67.9	10	17.9	2	3.6	1	1.8	-	-	5	8.9	4.67	0.65
FOR TEACHERS ONLY														
6. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching	19	33.9	11	19.6	2	3.6	1	1.8	-	-	23	41.1	4.45	0.75
7. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	16	28.6	11	19.6	6	10.7	-	-	-	-	23	41.1	4.30	0.77
8. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	17	30.4	12	21.4	3	5.4	1	1.8	-	-	23	41.1	4.36	0.78
9. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	15	26.8	13	23.2	2	3.6	2	3.6	-	-	24	42.9	4.28	0.85
10. helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	20	35.7	9	16.1	4	7.1	-	-	-	-	23	41.1	4.48	0.71

Table 4.15

Headteachers' Perceptions of Purposes and Importance attached to Purposes of Internal Instructional Supervision

	Level of agreement				Degree of importance			
	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
FOR TEACHERS ONLY								
1. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	54	4.67	0.51	3	50	4.66	0.52	2
2. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding:								
(a) promotion	50	4.66	0.59	4	47	4.53	0.65	4
(b) demotion	40	3.28	1.28	11	42	2.95	1.27	11
(c) dismissal	35	3.11	1.45	12	40	2.75	1.33	12
3. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realized	44	4.52	0.70	7	43	4.51	0.70	5
FOR BOTH HEADTEACHERS AND TEACHERS								
4. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	54	4.72	0.53	2	51	4.59	0.70	3
5. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	54	4.74	0.52	1	51	4.67	0.65	1

continue

Table 4.15 (continued)

	Level of agreement				Degree of importance			
	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
FOR TEACHERS ONLY								
6. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching	34	4.65	0.54	5	33	4.45	0.75	7
7. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	34	4.50	0.62	8.5	33	4.30	0.77	9
8. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	34	4.50	0.62	8.5	33	4.36	0.78	8
9. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	34	4.29	0.68	10	32	4.28	0.85	10
10. helps teachers improve their teaching effective-ness	34	4.62	0.60	6	33	4.48	0.71	6

Response scale for level of agreement: 5 strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = uncertain, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree
for degree of importance: 5 = very great, 4 = great, 3 = moderate, 2 = some, 1 = no importance

Table 4.16

Teachers' Perceptions of the Frequency of Existing and Preferred Foci of Internal Instructional Supervision

(N=136)

		5 very frequently examined		4 often examined		3 sometimes examined		2 rarely examined		1 never examined		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
1. Teacher's overall organization of lessons	E	25	18.4	36	26.5	48	35.3	15	11.0	9	6.6	3	2.2	3.40	1.12
	P	45	33.1	51	37.5	18	13.2	6	4.4	2	1.5	14	10.3	4.07	0.93
2. Teacher's organization of the subject matter	E	15	11.0	32	23.5	42	30.9	19	14.0	22	16.9	6	4.4	2.99	1.24
	P	38	27.9	44	32.4	23	16.9	5	3.7	10	7.4	16	11.8	3.79	1.18
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter	E	18	13.2	24	17.6	24	17.6	27	19.9	29	21.3	14	10.3	2.80	1.39
	P	36	26.5	32	23.5	34	25.0	3	2.2	10	7.4	21	15.4	3.70	1.19
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development	E	47	34.6	51	37.5	21	15.4	10	7.4	6	4.4	1	0.7	3.91	1.10
	P	74	54.4	36	26.5	13	9.6	2	1.5	2	1.5	9	6.7	4.40	0.86
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum	E	25	18.4	28	20.6	36	26.5	20	14.7	18	13.2	9	6.6	3.17	1.31
	P	48	35.3	35	25.7	31	22.8	9	6.6	2	1.5	11	8.1	3.94	1.03
6. Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan	E	26	19.1	25	18.4	20	14.7	29	14.7	33	24.3	12	8.8	2.93	1.51
	P	38	27.9	35	25.7	26	19.1	9	6.6	13	9.6	15	11.0	3.63	1.29
7. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry	E	24	17.6	31	22.8	32	23.5	29	21.3	16	11.8	4	2.9	3.14	1.29
	P	46	33.8	40	29.4	29	21.3	7	5.1	2	1.5	12	8.8	3.98	0.99

continue

Table 4.16 (continued)

		5 very frequently examined		4 often examined		3 sometimes examined		2 rarely examined		1 never examined		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids	E	12	8.8	17	12.5	34	25.0	30	22.1	34	25.0	9	6.6	2.55	1.28
	P	46	33.8	40	29.4	29	21.3	7	5.1	2	1.5	12	8.8	3.98	1.20
9. Achievement of course objectives	E	38	27.9	39	28.7	24	17.6	18	13.2	13	9.6	4	2.9	3.54	1.30
	P	65	47.8	41	30.1	14	10.3	4	2.9	1	0.7	11	8.1	4.32	0.86
10. Teacher's personality	E	22	16.2	23	16.9	40	29.4	19	14.0	16	11.8	16	11.8	3.13	1.27
	P	33	24.3	32	23.5	37	27.2	4	2.9	7	5.1	23	16.9	3.71	1.12
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development	E	38	27.9	32	23.5	33	24.3	22	16.2	9	6.6	2	1.5	3.51	1.25
	P	63	46.3	42	30.9	15	11.0	3	2.2	3	2.2	10	7.4	4.26	0.93
12. Availability of properly organized pupils' progress records	E	74	54.4	40	29.4	14	10.3	5	3.7	-	-	3	2.2	4.38	0.82
	P	83	61.0	36	26.5	3	2.2	1	0.7	1	0.7	12	8.8	4.60	0.66
13. Availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered	E	67	49.3	32	23.5	24	17.6	7	5.1	6	4.4	-	-	4.08	1.13
	P	84	61.8	28	20.6	10	7.4	3	2.2	1	0.7	10	7.4	4.52	0.81
14. Teacher's dress and appearance	E	14	10.3	22	16.2	31	22.8	19	14.0	30	22.1	20	14.7	2.75	1.35
	P	30	22.1	34	25.0	30	22.1	9	6.6	11	8.1	22	12.2	3.55	1.23
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility	E	40	29.4	32	23.5	29	21.3	20	14.7	12	8.8	3	2.2	3.51	1.31
	P	61	44.9	45	33.1	14	10.3	3	2.2	2	1.5	11	8.1	4.28	0.88

continue

Table 4.16 (continued)

		5 very frequent-ly examined		4 often examined		3 sometimes examined		2 rarely examined		1 never examined		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting	E	22	16.2	29	21.3	31	22.8	22	16.2	21	15.4	11	8.1	3.07	1.34
	P	45	33.1	49	36.0	17	12.5	3	2.2	4	2.9	18	13.2	4.08	0.97
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class	E	8	5.9	18	13.2	24	17.6	29	21.3	37	27.2	20	14.7	2.41	1.27
	P	28	20.6	37	27.2	30	22.1	8	5.9	9	6.6	24	17.6	3.60	1.17
18. Teacher's classroom management	E	26	19.1	34	25.0	29	21.3	18	13.2	22	16.2	7	5.1	3.19	1.37
	P	48	35.3	43	31.6	26	19.1	4	2.9	4	2.9	11	8.1	4.02	1.01
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities	E	15	11.0	26	19.1	48	35.3	25	18.4	13	9.6	9	6.6	3.04	1.14
	P	32	23.5	46	33.8	27	19.9	3	2.2	4	2.9	24	17.6	3.88	0.97
20. Teacher's concern with Pupils' performance in national examinations	E	78	57.4	29	21.3	24	17.6	3	2.2	-	-	2	1.5	4.36	0.85
	P	90	66.2	27	19.9	7	5.1	-	-	1	0.7	11	8.1	4.64	0.66
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities	E	24	17.6	30	22.1	38	27.9	15	11.0	18	13.2	11	8.1	3.22	1.29
	P	42	30.9	47	34.6	21	15.4	4	2.9	3	2.2	19	14.0	4.03	0.96
22. Teacher-pupil relationships	E	49	36.0	40	29.4	28	20.6	6	4.4	7	5.1	6	4.4	3.91	1.12
	P	69	50.7	35	25.7	16	11.8	3	2.2	1	0.7	12	8.8	4.35	0.86

E = Existing extent, P = Preferred extent

Table 4.17

Comparison Between Teachers' Perceptions of the Frequency of Examination of Existing and Preferred Foci of Internal Instructional Supervision

Foci of internal instructional supervision	Existing Extent Mean	Existing Extent S.D.	Existing Extent Rank	Preferred Extent Mean	Preferred Extent S.D.	Preferred Extent Rank	t-value	Prob.
1. Teacher's overall organization of lessons (n=121)	3.40	1.10	9	4.08	0.93	9	-6.092	.000 **
2. Teacher's organization of the subject matter (n=118)	2.98	1.23	17	3.81	1.19	16	-7.096	.000 **
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter (n=111)	2.79	1.35	19	3.71	1.20	19	-7.361	.000 **
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development (n=127)	3.88	1.11	4.5	4.40	0.86	4	-5.337	.000 **
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum (n=119)	3.13	1.29	12	3.94	1.03	14	-7.241	.000 **
6 Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan (n=115)	2.94	1.53	18	3.64	1.29	20	-5.061	.000 **
7. Teacher's concern with the pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry (n=122)	3.09	1.29	13.5	3.98	0.99	13	-8.493	.000 **
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids (n=117)	2.50	1.26	21	3.74	1.18	17	-8.898	.000 **
9. Achievement of course objectives (n=123)	3.50	1.31	7	4.33	0.85	6	-7.158	.000 **
10. Teacher's personality (n=110)	3.09	1.25	13.5	3.73	1.09	18	-5.662	.000 **
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development (n=125)	3.46	1.25	8	4.26	0.93	8	-6.763	.000 **
12. Availability of properly organized pupils' progress records (n=123)	4.37	0.81	1	4.60	0.66	2	-3.267	.001 **

continued

Table 4.17 (continued)

Foci of internal instructional supervision	Existing Extent			Preferred Extent			t-value	Prob.
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank		
13. Availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered (n=126)	4.06	1.15	3	4.52	0.81	3	-4.666	.000 **
14. Teacher's dress and appearance (n=106)	2.76	1.34	20	3.62	1.17	22	-7.185	.000 **
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility (n=124)	3.52	1.32	6	4.27	0.88	7	-6.675	.000 **
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting (n=113)	3.07	1.34	15	4.07	0.97	10	-8.249	.000 **
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class (n=105)	2.44	1.27	22	3.63	1.13	21	-9.319	.000 **
18. Teacher's classroom management (n=119)	3.14	1.37	11	4.02	1.01	12	-7.871	.000 **
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities (n=110)	3.01	1.10	16	3.88	0.97	15	-8.013	.000 **
20. Teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations (n=124)	4.33	0.86	2	4.65	0.66	1	-4.493	.000 **
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities (n=113)	3.19	1.27	10	4.06	0.96	11	-7.884	.000 **
22. Teacher-pupil relationships (n=121)	3.88	1.13	4.5	4.36	0.86	5	-5.183	.000 **

Response scale: 5=very frequently examined, 1=never examined
* significant at the .05 level, ** significant at the .001 level

Table 4.18

Headteachers' Perceptions of the Frequency of Examination of Existing and Preferred Foci of Internal Instructional Supervision

(N=56)

		5 very frequently examined		4 often examined		3 sometimes examined		2 rarely examined		1 never examined		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
1. Teacher's overall organization of lessons	E	9	16.1	25	44.6	17	30.4	4	7.1	-	-	1	1.8	3.71	0.83
	P	26	46.4	21	37.5	2	3.6	1	1.8	1	1.8	5	8.9	4.37	0.82
2. Teacher's organization of the subject matter	E	9	16.1	20	35.7	16	28.6	9	16.1	-	-	2	3.6	3.54	0.97
	P	19	33.9	27	48.2	3	5.4	-	-	1	1.8	6	10.7	4.26	0.75
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter	E	12	21.4	8	14.3	19	33.9	11	19.6	3	5.4	3	5.4	3.28	1.20
	P	21	37.5	18	32.1	9	16.1	2	3.6	2	3.6	4	7.1	4.04	1.05
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development	E	24	42.9	18	32.1	8	14.3	3	7.1	1	1.8	1	1.8	4.09	1.02
	P	35	62.5	9	16.1	3	5.4	4	7.1	1	1.8	4	7.1	4.40	1.03
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum	E	13	23.2	17	30.4	13	23.2	9	16.1	2	3.6	2	3.6	3.56	1.14
	P	27	48.2	11	19.6	7	12.5	3	5.4	1	1.8	7	12.5	4.22	1.05
6. Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan	E	9	16.1	20	35.7	13	23.2	6	10.7	5	8.9	3	5.4	3.42	1.18
	P	25	44.6	15	26.8	7	12.5	-	-	3	5.4	6	10.7	4.18	1.08
7. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry	E	6	10.7	21	37.5	11	19.6	10	17.9	4	7.1	4	7.1	3.29	1.14
	P	21	37.5	20	35.7	5	8.9	-	-	2	3.6	8	14.3	4.21	0.94

continue

Table 4.18 (continued)

		5 very frequently examined		4 often examined		3 sometimes examined		2 rarely examined		1 never examined		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids	**E**	7	12.5	18	32.1	16	28.6	12	21.4	2	3.6	1	1.8	3.29	1.07
	P	25	44.6	19	33.9	6	10.7	1	1.8	1	1.8	4	7.1	4.27	0.89
9. Achievement of course objectives	**E**	16	28.6	18	32.1	12	21.4	6	10.7	1	1.8	3	5.4	3.79	1.06
	P	27	48.2	16	28.6	4	7.1	2	3.6	1	1.8	6	10.7	4.32	0.94
10. Teacher's personality	**E**	15	26.8	14	25.0	14	25.0	3	5.4	5	8.9	5	8.9	3.61	1.25
	P	23	41.1	12	21.4	10	17.9	2	3.6	1	1.8	8	14.3	4.13	1.02
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development	**E**	16	28.6	16	28.6	12	21.4	6	10.7	4	7.1	2	3.6	3.63	1.23
	P	28	50.0	12	21.4	8	14.3	1	1.8	2	3.6	5	8.9	4.24	1.05
12. Availability of properly organized pupils' progress records	**E**	34	60.7	15	26.8	4	7.1	2	3.6	-	-	1	1.8	4.47	0.79
	P	38	67.9	11	19.6	-	-	2	3.6	1	1.8	4	7.1	4.60	0.85
13. Availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered	**E**	24	42.9	20	35.7	8	14.3	2	3.6	1	1.8	1	1.8	4.16	0.94
	P	38	67.9	8	14.3	4	7.1	1	1.8	1	1.8	4	7.1	4.56	0.87
14. Teacher's dress and appearance	**E**	15	26.8	9	16.1	16	28.6	10	17.9	2	3.3	4	7.1	3.48	1.21
	P	22	39.3	13	23.2	10	17.9	3	5.4	2	3.6	6	10.7	4.00	1.12
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility	**E**	11	19.6	22	39.3	13	23.2	6	10.7	1	1.8	3	5.4	3.68	1.00
	P	22	39.3	20	35.7	5	8.9	2	3.6	1	1.8	6	10.7	4.20	0.93

continue

Table 4.18 (continued)

		5 very frequently examined		4 often examined		3 sometimes examined		2 rarely examined		1 never examined		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting	E	11	19.6	14	25.0	16	28.6	7	12.5	5	8.9	3	5.4	3.36	1.23
	P	23	41.1	21	37.5	5	8.9	1	1.8	1	1.8	5	8.9	4.25	0.87
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class	E	3	5.4	10	17.4	17	30.4	14	25.0	9	16.1	3	5.4	2.70	1.14
	P	10	17.9	24	42.9	12	21.4	-	-	4	7.1	6	10.7	3.72	1.05
18. Teacher's classroom management	E	14	25.0	19	33.9	13	23.2	5	8.9	4	7.1	1	1.8	3.62	1.18
	P	24	42.9	20	35.7	5	8.9	1	1.8	1	1.8	5	8.9	4.27	0.87
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities	E	9	16.1	21	37.5	18	32.1	4	7.1	1	1.8	3	5.4	3.62	0.92
	P	21	37.5	15	26.8	9	16.1	2	3.6	1	1.8	8	14.3	4.10	0.99
20. Teacher's concern with Pupils' performance in national examinations	E	37	66.1	10	17.9	3	5.4	2	3.6	1	1.8	3	5.4	4.51	0.91
	P	44	78.6	3	5.4	2	3.6	-	-	1	1.8	6	10.7	4.78	0.71
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities	E	14	25.0	13	23.2	21	37.5	3	5.4	3	5.4	2	3.6	3.59	1.11
	P	22	39.3	22	39.3	4	7.1	1	1.8	2	3.6	5	8.9	4.20	0.96
22. Teacher-pupil relationships	E	26	46.4	15	26.8	8	14.3	3	5.4	2	3.6	2	3.6	4.11	1.09
	P	39	69.6	6	10.7	5	8.9	1	1.8	1	1.8	4	7.1	4.56	0.89

E = Existing extent, P = Preferred extent

Table 4.19

Comparison Between Headteachers' Perceptions of the Frequency of Examination of Existing and Preferred Foci of Internal Instructional Supervision

	Existing Extent			Preferred Extent				
Foci of internal instructional supervision	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
1. Teacher's overall organization of lessons (n=51)	3.67	0.84	9	4.37	0.82	6	-5.595	.000 **
2. Teacher's organization of the subject matter (n=50)	3.52	0.95	15	4.26	0.75	12	-4.666	.000 **
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter (n=51)	3.25	1.20	20.5	4.10	0.96	19.5	-5.555	.000 **
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development (n=52)	4.06	1.04	5	4.40	1.03	5	-2.021	.049 *
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum (n=49)	3.53	1.17	14	4.22	1.05	15	-5.050	.000 **
6 Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan (n=49)	3.39	1.19	17	4.24	0.99	13.5	-5.555	.000 **
7. Teacher's concern with the pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry (n=47)	3.32	1.16	19	4.28	0.83	8.5	-5.402	.000 **
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids (n=52)	3.25	1.06	20.5	4.27	0.89	10.5	-8.002	.000 **
9. Achievement of course objectives (n=50)	3.80	1.05	6	4.32	0.94	7	-3.487	.001 **
10. Teacher's personality (n=47)	3.70	1.21	7	4.15	1.02	18	-3.076	.004 *
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development (n=51)	3.65	1.25	10.5	4.24	1.05	13.5	-4.363	.000 **
12. Availability of properly organized pupils' progress records (n=52)	4.56	0.70	1	4.60	0.85	2	-0.299	.766

continued

Table 4.19 (continued)

Foci of internal instructional supervision	Existing Extent			Preferred Extent			t-value	Prob.
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank		
13. Availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered (n=52)	4.17	0.94	3	4.56	0.87	3	-3.287	.002 *
14. Teacher's dress and appearance (n=48)	3.46	1.24	16	4.00	1.13	21	-4.072	.000 **
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility (n=50)	3.68	1.02	8	4.20	0.93	16.5	-3.487	.001 **
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting (n=50)	3.34	1.26	18	4.28	0.86	8.5	-5.870	.000 **
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class (n=50)	2.72	1.14	22	3.72	1.05	22	-6.499	.000 **
18. Teacher's classroom management (n=51)	3.61	1.17	12	4.27	0.87	10.5	-4.165	.000 **
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities (n=48)	3.65	0.96	10.5	4.10	0.99	19.5	-3.632	.001 **
20. Teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations (n=50)	4.50	0.93	2	4.78	0.71	1	-2.246	.029 *
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities (n=51)	3.57	1.12	13	4.20	0.96	16.5	-4.093	.000 **
22. Teacher-pupil relationships (n=52)	4.12	1.11	4	4.56	0.89	4	-2.829	.007 *

Response scale: 5=very frequently examined, 1=never examined
* significant at the .05 level, ** significant at the .001 level

Table 4.20

Teachers' Responses to Importance of Practices of Internal Instructional Supervision (N=136)

		5 great importance		4 high importance		3 moderate importance		2 some importance		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
ORIENTATION															
1. Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted	E	34	25.0	42	30.9	32	23.5	16	11.8	9	6.6	3	2.2	3.57	1.19
	P	67	49.3	38	27.9	15	11.0	5	3.7	3	2.2	8	5.9	4.26	0.97
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated	E	39	28.7	38	27.9	27	19.9	16	11.8	12	8.8	4	2.9	3.58	1.28
	P	58	42.6	32	23.5	20	14.7	5	3.7	13	9.6	8	5.9	3.91	1.30
3. Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process	E	39	28.7	35	25.7	31	22.8	15	11.0	13	9.6	3	2.2	3.54	1.29
	P	71	52.2	40	29.4	10	7.4	4	2.9	3	2.2	8	5.9	4.34	0.93
4. Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory program	E	21	15.4	36	26.5	30	22.1	23	16.9	19	14.0	7	5.1	3.13	1.30
	P	54	39.7	41	30.1	17	12.5	4	2.9	9	6.6	11	8.1	4.02	1.16

continue

Table 4.20 (continued)

		5 great importance		4 high importance		3 moderate importance		2 some importance		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
5. Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves	E	22	16.2	29	21.3	26	19.1	26	19.1	28	20.6	5	3.7	2.93	1.40
	P	42	30.9	50	36.8	15	11.0	9	6.6	10	7.4	10	7.4	3.83	1.20
6. Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation	E	10	7.4	18	13.2	19	14.0	41	30.1	41	30.1	7	5.1	2.34	1.27
	P	28	20.6	47	34.6	19	14.0	9	6.6	22	16.2	11	8.1	3.40	1.38
DATA GATHERING															
7. Using examination/ test results as an indicator of teacher performance	E	54	39.7	33	24.3	22	16.2	8	5.9	15	11.0	4	2.9	3.78	1.34
	P	62	45.6	27	19.9	22	16.2	10	7.4	6	4.4	9	6.6	4.02	1.19
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews	E	20	14.7	23	16.9	36	26.5	22	16.2	30	22.1	5	3.7	2.85	1.37
	P	26	19.1	20	14.7	23	16.9	22	16.2	35	25.7	10	7.4	2.84	1.50
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice	E	33	24.3	20	14.7	34	25.0	20	14.7	24	17.6	5	3.7	3.14	1.43
	P	46	33.8	44	32.4	20	14.7	8	5.9	9	6.6	9	6.6	3.87	1.18
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching	E	54	39.7	28	20.6	29	21.3	16	11.8	4	2.9	5	3.7	3.85	1.18
	P	78	57.4	35	25.7	13	9.6	-	-	2	1.5	8	5.9	4.46	0.80

continue

Table 4.20 (continued)

		5 great importance		4 high importance		3 moderate importance		2 some importance		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
FOLLOW-UP/SUPPORT															
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality	**E**	35	25.7	29	21.3	43	31.6	21	15.4	3	2.2	5	3.7	3.55	1.12
	P	63	46.3	49	36.0	9	6.6	5	3.7	2	1.5	8	5.9	4.30	0.88
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences	**E**	12	8.8	23	16.9	30	22.1	32	23.5	32	23.5	7	5.1	2.62	1.29
	P	25	18.2	33	24.3	28	20.6	15	11.0	24	17.6	11	8.1	3.16	1.39
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback	**E**	30	~~22.1~~	18	13.2	28	20.6	34	25.0	20	14.7	6	4.4	3.03	1.40
	P	69	50.7	31	22.8	16	11.8	8	5.9	3	2.2	9	6.6	4.22	1.05
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers	**E**	18	13.2	14	10.3	20	14.7	37	27.2	39	28.7	8	5.9	2.49	1.39
	P	48	35.3	32	23.5	18	13.2	11	8.1	15	11.0	12	8.8	3.70	1.38
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them	**E**	24	17.6	27	19.9	27	19.9	27	19.9	21	15.4	10	7.4	3.05	1.37
	P	65	47.8	35	25.7	13	9.6	7	5.1	4	2.9	12	8.8	4.21	1.05
16. Recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers	**E**	49	36.0	22	12.2	28	20.6	23	16.9	9	6.6	5	3.7	3.60	1.33
	P	95	69.9	23	16.9	10	7.4	-	-	-	-	8	5.9	4.66	0.62

E = Importance of existing practice, P = Importance of preferred extent

Table 4.21

Comparison between the Existing and Preferred Practices of Instructional Supervision as Perceived by Teachers

	Importance for Existing Practice			Importance for Preferred Practice				
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
ORIENTATION								
1. Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted (n=128)	3.59	1.18	3.5	4.26	0.97	5	-6.85	.000 **
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated (n=128)	3.58	1.27	5	3.91	1.30	10	-3.024	.003 **
3. Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process (n=128)	3.53	1.28	7	4.34	0.93	3	-8.053	.000 **
4. Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory program (n=125)	3.14	1.28	8	4.02	1.16	8.5	-7.919	.000 **
5. Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves (n=126)	2.94	1.39	12	3.83	1.20	12	-7.413	.000 **
6. Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation (n=125)	2.33	1.27	16	3.40	1.38	14	-9.788	.000 **
7. Using examination/test results as an indicator of teacher performance (n=127)	3.76	1.36	2	4.02	1.19	8.5	-8.538	.000 **

continue

Table 4.21 (continued)

	Importance for Existing Practice			Importance for Preferred Practice				
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
DATA GATHERING								
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews (n=126)	2.83	1.37	13	2.84	1.50	16	-2.120	.036 *
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice (n=127)	3.13	1.43	9	3.87	1.18	11	-0.059	.953
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (self-evaluation) (n=128)	3.84	1.18	1	4.46	0.80	2	-6.261	.000 **
FOLLOW-UP/SUPPORT								
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality (n=128)	3.55	1.11	6	4.30	0.88	4	-6.256	.000 **
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences (n=125)	2.59	1.28	14	3.16	1.39	15	-8.452	.000 **
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback (n=127)	3.02	1.40	10.5	4.22	1.05	6	-4.849	.000 **
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers (n=124)	2.51	1.41	15	3.70	1.38	13	-9.195	.000 **
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them (n=123)	3.02	1.37	10.5	4.20	1.06	7	-9.776	.000 **
16. Recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers (n=128)	3.59	1.34	3.5	4.66	0.62	1	-8.876	.000 **

Response scale: 5=great importance, 1=no importance

* significant at the .05 level, ** significant at the .001 level

Table 4.22

Headteachers' Responses to Importance of Practices of Internal Instructional Supervision
(N=56)

		5 great importance		4 high importance		3 moderate importance		2 some importance		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
ORIENTATION															
1. Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted	E	21	37.5	14	25.0	20	35.7	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	3.98	0.90
	P	32	57.1	20	35.7	1	1.8	2	3.6	-	-	1	1.8	4.49	0.72
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated	E	15	26.8	21	37.5	12	21.4	7	12.5	1	1.8	-	-	3.75	1.05
	P	21	37.5	18	32.1	12	21.4	1	1.8	2	3.6	2	3.6	4.02	1.02
3. Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process	E	23	41.1	19	33.9	11	19.6	2	3.6	-	-	1	1.8	4.14	0.87
	P	34	60.7	15	26.8	3	5.4	1	1.8	-	-	3	5.4	4.55	0.70
4. Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory program	E	17	30.4	19	33.9	13	23.2	5	8.9	1	1.8	1	1.8	3.84	1.03
	P	28	50.0	14	25.0	7	12.5	4	7.1	-	-	3	5.4	4.25	0.96

continue

Table 4.22 (continued)

		5 great importance		4 high importance		3 moderate importance		2 some importance		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
5. Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves	E	9	16.1	19	33.9	16	28.6	8	14.3	4	7.1	-	-	3.38	1.14
	P	20	35.7	20	35.7	10	17.9	1	1.8	2	3.6	3	5.4	4.04	1.00
6. Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation	E	9	16.1	14	25.0	19	33.9	7	12.5	7	12.7	-	-	3.20	1.23
	P	18	32.1	13	23.2	16	28.6	3	5.4	4	7.1	2	3.6	3.70	1.21
DATA GATHERING															
7. Using examination/ test results as an indicator of teacher performance	E	25	44.6	20	35.7	10	17.9	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	4.23	0.81
	P	27	48.2	15	26.8	11	19.6	1	1.8	-	-	2	3.6	4.26	0.85
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews	E	9	16.1	11	19.6	20	35.7	10	17.9	6	10.7	-	-	3.13	1.21
	P	14	25.0	12	21.4	18	32.1	6	10.7	4	7.1	2	3.6	3.48	1.21
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice	E	17	30.4	16	28.6	14	25.0	8	14.3	1	1.8	-	-	3.71	1.11
	P	28	50.0	12	21.4	9	16.1	4	7.1	1	1.8	2	3.6	4.15	1.07
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching	E	25	44.6	15	26.8	13	23.2	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	4.11	0.95
	P	33	58.9	15	26.8	5	8.9	1	1.8	-	-	2	3.6	4.48	0.75

continue

Table 4.22 (continued)

		5 great importance		4 high importance		3 moderate importance		2 some importance		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
FOLLOW-UP/SUPPORT															
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality	E	24	42.9	24	42.9	6	10.7	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	4.25	0.79
	P	37	66.1	15	26.8	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.65	0.55
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences	E	7	12.5	12	21.4	16	28.6	15	26.8	5	8.9	1	1.8	3.02	3.87
	P	20	35.7	17	30.4	8	14.3	5	8.9	3	5.4	3	5.4	3.87	1.19
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback	E	20	35.7	17	30.4	14	25.0	5	8.9	-	-	-	-	3.93	0.99
	P	37	66.1	13	23.2	4	7.1	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.61	0.63
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers	E	9	16.1	12	21.4	14	25.0	13	23.2	8	14.3	-	-	3.02	1.30
	P	22	39.3	15	26.8	11	19.6	2	3.6	4	7.1	2	3.6	3.91	1.20
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them	E	18	32.1	14	24.0	17	30.4	6	10.7	-	-	1	1.8	3.80	1.03
	P	32	57.1	15	26.8	5	8.9	1	1.8	-	-	3	5.4	4.47	0.75
16. Recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers	E	33	58.9	14	25.0	9	16.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.43	0.76
	P	41	73.2	8	14.3	5	8.9	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.67	0.64

E = Importance of existing practice, P = Importance of preferred extent

Table 4.23

Comparison between the Existing and Preferred Practices of Instructional Supervision as Perceived by Headteachers

	Importance for Existing Practice			Importance for Preferred Practice				
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
ORIENTATION								
1. Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted (n=55)	3.96	0.90	6	4.49	0.72	5	-4.449	.000 **
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated (n=54)	3.74	1.05	10	4.02	1.02	12	-2.271	.027 *
3. Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process (n=53)	4.13	0.88	4	4.55	0.70	4	-3.589	.001 **
4. Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory program (n=53)	3.81	1.04	8	4.25	0.96	9	-3.744	.000 **
5. Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves (n=53)	3.32	1.12	12	4.04	1.00	11	-5.625	.000 **
6. Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation (n=54)	3.15	1.22	13	3.70	1.21	15	-3.519	.001 **
7. Using examination/test results as an indicator of teacher performance (n=54)	4.26	0.81	2	4.26	0.85	8	0.000	1.000

continue

Table 4.23 (continued)

	Importance for Existing Practice			Importance for Preferred Practice				
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
DATA GATHERING								
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews (n=54)	3.07	1.20	14	3.48	1.21	16	-3.248	.002 *
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice (n=127)	3.70	1.13	11	4.15	1.07	10	-3.791	.000 **
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (self-evaluation) (n=54)	4.07	0.95	5	4.48	0.75	6	-3.488	.001 **
FOLLOW-UP/SUPPORT								
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality (n=54)	4.24	0.80	3	4.65	0.55	2	-4.541	.000 **
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences (n=53)	2.94	1.13	15.5	3.87	1.19	14	-6.282	.000 **
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback (n=54)	3.91	1.00	7	4.61	0.63	3	-5.476	.000 **
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers (n=54)	2.94	1.27	15.5	3.91	1.20	13	-5.558	.000 **
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them (n=53)	3.79	1.03	9	4.47	0.75	7	-5.404	.000 **
16. Recognizing and rewarding excellent teachers (n=54)	4.41	0.77	1	4.67	0.64	1	-3.236	.002 *

Response scale: 5=great importance, 1=no importance
* significant at the .05 level, ** significant at the .001 level

Table 4.24

Frequency Distribution of Teachers, Headteachers, and Education officers Regarding Mention of Foci of Internal Instructional Supervision

Practices	Teachers f	Headteachers/ Deputy Headteachers f	Education Officers f
1. Checking Teacher's Tools of Work or Artifacts of Teaching:			
(a) Schemes of Work	5	4	4
(b) Records of Work Covered	3	5	3
(c) Lesson Notes	3	2	
(d) Lesson Plans/Lesson Guides	4	2	2
(d) Lesson-Focus Books		1	
(e) Mark Books		2	
(f) Daily Preparation Books		2	
(g) Past Test Papers			1
(h) Students Examination Books			1
(i) Class registers			1
(k) Progress Records			2
2. Examination of students' exercise books	2		
3. Using students (prefects) to obtain information about teachers (e.g., through interviews)	2		
4. Holding conferences with teachers	1	6	2
5. Observing teachers in their classrooms	2	3	2
6. Supervision by walking around		1	

Table 4.25

Teachers Perceptions Regarding Documents and Guidelines that may Influence Internal Instructional Supervision

Documents	5 great influence		4 high influence		3 moderate influence		2 some influence		1 no influence				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. The TSC Code of Regulations (n=135)	81	60.0	32	23.7	18	13.3	4	3.0	-	-	4.41	0.83	1
2. The Heads Manual (n=131)	45	34.4	35	26.7	32	24.4	10	7.6	9	6.9	3.74	1.21	5
3. Policy memos from the Ministry of Education headquarters (n=132)	50	37.9	45	34.1	28	21.2	9	6.8	-	-	4.03	0.93	2
4. Policy memos from the Provincial Director of Education (PDE) (n=132)	49	37.1	46	34.8	23	17.4	10	7.6	4	3.0	3.95	1.06	3
5. Policy memos from the District Education Officer (DEO) (n=131)	45	34.4	36	27.5	25	19.1	15	11.5	10	7.5	3.69	1.26	6
6. The Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents (n=129)	30	23.3	24	18.6	22	17.1	25	19.4	28	21.7	3.02	1.48	8
7. The Kenya Union of Teachers (KNUT) documents (n=132)	32	24.2	32	24.2	26	19.7	26	19.7	16	12.1	3.29	1.35	7
8. The Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) documents (n=132)	56	42.4	35	26.5	19	14.4	16	12.1	6	4.5	3.90	1.21	4
9. Documents from Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs) (n=126)	24	19.0	15	11.9	17	13.5	23	18.3	47	37.3	2.57	1.55	9

Table 4.26

Teachers' Perceptions of Existing and Preferred Importance Given to Aspects in *"A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya"*

(N=136)

		5 very great importance		4 great importance		3 moderate importance		2 some importance		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
(a) "Schemes of work" (i.e., overall planning of each subject through-out the term)	E	87	64.0	30	22.1	13	9.6	2	1.5	2	1.5	2	1.5	4.48	0.85
	P	102	75.0	17	12.5	5	3.7	4	2.9	1	0.7	7	5.1	4.67	0.76
(b) "Lesson notes" (i.e., notes kept by teachers)	E	54	39.7	31	22.8	20	14.7	19	14.0	10	7.4	2	1.5	3.75	1.35
	P	77	56.6	29	21.3	13	9.6	5	3.7	5	3.7	7	5.1	4.30	1.06
(c) "Record of work done" (i.e. teachers' weekly record of topics covered and students' activities)	E	78	57.4	25	18.4	19	14.0	6	4.4	5	3.7	3	2.2	4.24	1.10
	P	89	65.4	27	19.9	9	6.6	3	2.2	-	-	8	5.9	4.58	0.73
(d) "Pupils' exercise books " (i.e., the actual workbooks of students)	E	40	29.4	33	24.3	28	20.6	23	16.9	10	7.4	2	1.5	3.52	1.28
	P	68	50.0	36	26.5	21	15.4	3	2.2	1	0.7	7	5.1	4.29	0.88
(e) "Actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers"	E	7	5.1	14	10.3	26	19.1	35	25.7	51	37.5	3	2.2	2.18	1.21
	P	29	21.3	31	22.8	24	17.6	16	11.8	29	21.3	7	5.1	3.12	1.47

E: Importance of existing aspect
P: Importance of preferred aspect

Table 4.27

Comparison between the Existing and Preferred Importance Given to *Aspects in A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools* as Perceived by Teachers

	Importance of Existing Aspect			Importance of Preferred Aspect				
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
(a) "Schemes of work" (i.e., overall planning of each subject through-out the term) (n=129)	4.47	0.86	1	4.67	0.76	1	-2.439	.016 *
(b) "Lesson notes" (i.e., notes kept by teachers) (n=129)	3.74	1.32	3	4.30	1.29	3	-5.518	.000 **
(c)."Records of work done" (i.e., teachers' weekly record of topics covered and students' activities) (n=128)	4.23	1.10	2	4.58	0.73	2	-3.667	.000 **
(d) "Pupils' exercise books" (i.e., the actual workbooks of students) (n=129)	3.50	1.30	4	4.29	0.88	4	-7.673	.000 **
(e) "Actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers" (n=129)	2.16	1.19	5	3.12	1.47	5	-8.266	.000 **

Response scale: 5=great importance, 1=no importance
* significant at the .05 level, ** significant at the .001 level

Table 4.28

Headteachers Perceptions Regarding Documents and Guidelines that may Influence Internal Instructional Supervision

	5 great influence		4 high influence		3 moderate influence		2 some influence		1 no influence				
Documents	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. The TSC Code of Regulations (n=56)	39	69.6	14	25.0	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	4.64	0.59	1
2. The Heads Manual (n=56)	32	57.1	17	30.4	7	12.5	-	-	-	-	4.45	0.71	2
3. Policy memos from the Ministry of Education headquarters (n=55)	24	43.6	19	34.5	11	20.0	1	1.8	-	-	4.20	0.83	4
4. Policy memos from the Provincial Director of Education (PDE) (n=55)	27	49.1	16	29.1	11	20.0	-	-	1	1.8	4.24	0.90	3
5. Policy memos from the District Education Officer (DEO) (n=54)	23	42.6	19	35.2	7	13.0	5	9.3	-	-	4.11	0.96	6
6. The Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents (n=56)	22	39.3	15	26.8	10	17.9	7	12.5	2	3.6	3.86	1.18	7
7. The Kenya Union of Teachers (KNUT) documents (n=56)	11	19.6	13	23.2	17	30.4	13	23.2	2	3.6	3.32	1.15	8
8. The Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) documents (n=55)	26	47.3	17	30.9	7	12.7	4	7.3	1	1.8	4.15	1.03	5
9. Documents from Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs) (n=54)	10	18.5	8	14.8	7	13.0	15	27.8	14	25.9	2.72	1.47	9

Table 4.29

Headteachers' Perceptions of Existing and Preferred Importance Given to Aspects in "*A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya*" (N=56)

		5 very great importance		4 great importance		3 moderate importance		2 some importance		1 no importance		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
(a) "Schemes of work" (i.e., overall planning of each subject through-out the term)	E	41	73.2	10	17.9	5	8.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.64	0.64
	P	44	78.6	10	17.9	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.78	0.46
(b) "Lesson notes" (i.e., notes kept by teachers)	E	33	58.9	15	26.8	7	12.5	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	4.43	0.78
	P	44	78.6	9	16.1	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.76	0.51
(c) "Record of work done" (i.e. teachers' weekly record of topics covered and students' activities)	E	40	71.4	14	25.0	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.68	0.54
	P	45	80.4	8	14.3	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.78	0.50
(d) "Pupils' exercise books " (i.e., the actual workbooks of students)	E	29	51.8	19	33.9	6	10.7	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	4.34	0.82
	P	35	62.5	17	30.4	1	1.8	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	4.59	0.63
(e) "Actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers"	E	10	17.9	15	26.8	20	35.7	10	17.9	1	1.8	-	-	3.41	1.04
	P	24	42.9	18	32.1	10	17.9	2	3.6	1	1.8	1	1.8	4.13	0.96

E: Importance of existing aspect
P: Importance of preferred aspect

Table 4.30

Comparison between the Existing and Preferred Importance Given to *Aspects in A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools* as Perceived by Headteachers

	Importance of Existing Aspect			Importance of Preferred Aspect				
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
(a) "Schemes of work" (i.e., overall planning of each subject through-out the term) (n=55)	4.64	0.65	2	4.78	0.46	1.5	-2.213	.031 *
(b) "Lesson notes" (i.e., notes kept by teachers) (n=55)	4.42	0.79	3	4.76	0.51	3	-3.530	.001 **
(c). "Records of work done" (i.e., teachers' weekly record of topics covered and students' activities) (n=55)	4.67	0.55	1	4.78	0.50	1.5	-1.427	.159
(d) "Pupils' exercise books" (i.e., the actual workbooks of students) (n=54)	4.35	0.83	4	4.59	0.63	4	-2.356	.022 *
(e) "Actual visit to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers" (n=55)	3.40	1.05	5	4.13	0.96	5	-5.787	.000 **

Response scale: 5=great importance, 1=no importance
* significant at the .05 level, ** significant at the .001 level

Table 4.31

Teachers' Perceptions of the Importance Attached to and Need for Further Preparation Regarding Skills and Attributes of Instructional Supervisors
(N=136)

		5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 none		no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
1. Instructional problem-solving skills	I	50	36.8	34	25.0	36	26.5	3	5.9	1	0.7	7	5.1	3.96	1.00
	N	66	48.5	35	25.7	11	8.1	6	4.4	7	5.1	11	8.1	4.18	1.14
2. Ability to communicate effectively	I	65	47.8	41	30.1	18	13.2	6	4.4	-	-	6	4.4	4.27	0.87
	N	76	55.9	26	19.1	7	5.1	4	2.9	13	9.6	10	7.4	4.17	1.30
3. Skills in building upon strength of staff members	I	41	30.1	35	25.7	32	23.5	17	12.5	2	1.5	9	6.6	3.57	1.10
	N	69	50.7	24	17.6	15	11.0	6	4.4	9	6.6	13	9.6	4.12	1.24
4. Skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom	I	24	17.6	22	16.2	41	30.1	25	18.4	19	14.0	5	3.7	3.05	1.30
	N	37	27.2	40	29.4	21	15.4	11	8.1	17	12.5	10	7.4	3.55	1.35
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction	I	28	20.6	27	19.9	43	31.6	19	14.0	14	10.3	5	3.7	3.27	1.25
	N	41	30.1	44	32.4	20	14.7	10	7.4	11	8.1	10	7.4	3.75	1.24
6. Ability to develop interpersonal relations	I	43	31.6	41	30.1	26	19.1	17	12.5	4	2.9	5	3.7	3.78	1.13
	N	59	43.4	44	32.4	10	7.4	8	5.9	6	4.4	9	6.6	4.12	1.10
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning	I	37	27.2	38	27.9	32	23.5	15	11.0	7	5.1	7	5.1	3.64	1.17
	N	57	41.9	36	26.5	13	9.6	7	5.1	11	8.1	12	8.8	3.98	1.27

continue

Table 4.31 (continued)

		5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 none		no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
8. Ability to analyze teaching	I	42	30.9	43	31.6	23	16.9	20	14.7	2	1.5	6	4.4	3.79	1.10
	N	61	44.9	36	26.5	11	8.1	7	5.1	11	8.1	10	7.4	4.02	1.26
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring	I	43	31.6	34	25.0	30	22.1	17	12.5	5	3.7	7	5.1	3.72	1.17
	N	57	41.9	43	31.6	9	6.6	5	3.7	12	8.8	10	7.4	4.02	1.25
10. Skills in holding one-to-one-conferences	I	39	28.7	24	17.6	30	22.1	25	18.4	13	9.6	5	3.7	3.39	1.35
	N	44	32.4	38	27.9	22	16.2	6	4.4	17	12.5	9	6.6	3.68	1.35
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concern	I	40	29.4	33	24.3	32	23.5	18	13.2	5	3.7	8	5.9	3.66	1.17
	N	63	46.3	36	26.5	8	5.9	6	4.4	9	6.6	14	10.3	4.13	1.20
12. Ability to analyze complex problems	I	41	30.1	31	22.8	39	28.7	16	11.8	4	2.9	5	3.7	3.68	1.13
	N	59	43.4	39	28.7	16	11.8	4	2.9	9	6.6	9	6.6	4.06	1.17
13. Ability to do long-range planning	I	50	36.8	33	24.3	28	20.6	14	10.3	4	2.9	7	5.1	3.86	1.14
	N	67	49.3	34	25.0	5	3.7	7	5.1	12	8.8	11	8.1	4.10	1.29
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems	I	40	29.4	37	27.2	30	22.1	20	14.7	3	2.2	6	4.4	3.70	1.13
	N	63	46.3	36	26.5	10	7.4	7	5.1	10	7.4	10	7.4	4.07	1.23
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues	I	60	44.1	36	26.5	20	14.7	14	10.3	1	0.7	5	3.7	4.07	1.05
	N	72	52.9	31	22.8	7	5.1	4	2.9	12	8.8	10	7.4	4.17	1.26

I: Importance; N: Need for further preparation

Table 4.32

Comparison Between the Importance Attached to and Need for Further Preparation Regarding Skills and Attributes of Instructional Supervisors as Perceived by Teachers

	Importance			Need for further preparation		
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. Instructional problem-solving skills (n=125)	3.94	1.00	3	4.18	1.14	1
2. Ability to communicate effectively (n=126)	4.25	0.88	1	4.17	1.30	2.5
3. Skills in building upon strengths of staff members (n=123)	3.73	1.10	7	4.12	1.24	5.5
4. Shills in how to observe teachers in the classroom (n=126)	3.03	1.31	15	3.55	1.35	15
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction (n=126)	3.27	1.25	14	3.75	1.24	13
6 Ability to develop interpersonal relations (n=127)	3.77	1.14	5	4.12	1.10	5.5
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning (n=124)	3.63	1.18	11	3.98	1.27	12
8. Ability to analyze teaching (n=126)	3.76	1.11	6	4.02	1.26	10.5
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring (n=126)	3.71	1.18	8	4.02	1.25	10.5
10. Skills in holding on-to-one conferences (n=127)	3.37	1.36	13	3.68	1.35	14
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns (n=122)	3.63	1.18	12	4.13	1.20	4
12. Ability to analyze complex problems (n=127)	3.66	1.14	10	4.06	1.17	9
13. Ability to do long-range planning (n=125)	3.86	1.14	4	4.10	1.29	7
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems (n=126)	3.69	1.13	9	4.07	1.23	8
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues (n=126)	4.06	1.06	2	4.17	1.26	2.5

Response scale: Importance: 5= great, 4 =high, 3 = moderate, 2 = some 1 =no importance
Need for further preparation: 5= great, 4 =high, 3 = moderate, 2 = some 1 =none

Table 4.33

Headteachers' Perceptions of the Importance Attached to and Need for Further Preparation Regarding Skills and Attributes of Instructional Supervisors
(N=56)

		5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 none		no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
1. Instructional problem-solving skills	I	27	48.2	20	35.7	8	14.3	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	4.30	0.78
	N	34	60.7	16	28.6	5	8.9	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.53	0.66
2. Ability to communicate effectively	I	38	67.9	11	19.6	5	8.9	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.8	4.56	0.74
	N	36	64.3	12	21.4	3	5.4	3	5.4	-	-	2	3.6	4.50	0.94
3. Skills in building upon strength of staff members	I	22	39.3	24	42.9	7	12.5	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.28	0.69
	N	33	58.9	13	23.2	3	5.4	3	5.4	-	-	4	7.1	4.46	0.85
4. Skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom	I	22	39.3	17	30.4	14	25.0	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	4.04	0.93
	N	23	41.1	19	33.9	9	16.1	3	5.4	1	1.8	1	1.8	4.09	0.99
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction	I	20	35.7	17	30.4	17	30.4	1	1.8	1	1.8	-	-	3.96	0.95
	N	24	42.9	20	35.7	10	17.9	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.8	4.22	0.81
6. Ability to develop interpersonal relations	I	35	62.5	18	32.1	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.57	0.60
	N	34	60.7	11	19.6	5	8.9	4	7.1	1	1.8	1	1.8	4.33	1.04
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning	I	27	48.2	20	35.7	9	16.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.32	0.74
	N	33	58.9	13	23.2	4	7.1	3	5.4	1	1.8	2	3.6	4.37	0.98

continue

Table 4.33 (continued)

		5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 none		no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
8. Ability to analyze teaching	I	26	46.4	19	33.9	9	16.1	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	4.23	0.85
	N	32	57.1	12	21.4	7	12.5	2	3.6	2	3.6	1	1.8	4.27	1.06
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring	I	24	42.9	21	37.5	9	16.1	-	-	1	1.8	1	1.8	4.22	0.85
	N	23	41.1	19	33.9	6	10.7	4	7.1	1	1.8	3	5.4	4.11	1.01
10. Skills in holding one-to-one-conferences	I	20	35.7	20	35.7	10	17.9	4	7.1	2	3.6	-	-	3.93	1.08
	N	21	37.5	19	33.9	8	14.3	5	8.9	2	3.6	1	1.8	3.95	1.11
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concern	I	29	51.8	13	23.2	10	17.9	2	3.6	-	-	2	3.6	4.28	0.90
	N	25	44.6	17	30.4	8	14.3	1	1.8	2	3.6	3	5.4	4.17	1.01
12. Ability to analyze complex problems	I	24	42.9	19	33.9	12	21.4	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	4.18	0.83
	N	27	48.2	18	32.1	6	10.7	4	7.1	-	-	1	1.8	4.24	0.92
13. Ability to do long-range planning	I	25	44.6	20	35.7	7	12.5	3	5.4	-	-	1	1.8	4.22	0.88
	N	34	60.7	13	23.2	3	5.4	5	8.9	-	-	1	1.8	4.38	0.95
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems	I	24	42.9	22	39.3	7	12.5	2	3.6	-	-	1	1.8	4.24	0.82
	N	30	53.6	15	26.8	6	10.7	3	5.4	-	-	2	3.6	4.33	0.89
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues	I	35	62.5	14	25.0	4	7.1	2	3.6	-	-	1	1.8	4.49	0.79
	N	36	64.3	10	17.9	5	8.9	3	5.4	1	1.8	1	1.8	4.40	0.99

I: Importance; N: Need for further preparation

Table 4.34

Comparison Between the Importance Attached to and Need for Further Preparation Regarding Skills and Attributes of Instructional Supervisors as Perceived by Headteachers

	Importance			**Need for further preparation**		
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. Instructional problem-solving skills (n=55)	4.33	0.77	4	4.53	0.66	1
2. Ability to communicate effectively (n=54)	4.57	0.74	1	4.45	0.84	3
3. Skills in building upon strengths of staff members (n=52)	4.29	0.70	6	4.46	0.85	2
4. Shills in how to observe teachers in the classroom (n=55)	4.02	0.93	13	4.09	0.99	14
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction (n=55)	3.95	0.95	14	4.22	0.81	9.5
6 Ability to develop interpersonal relations (n=55)	4.56	0.60	2	4.33	1.04	6.5
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning (n=54)	4.30	0.74	5	4.37	0.98	5
8. Ability to analyze teaching (n=55)	4.24	0.86	9	4.27	1.06	8
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring (n=53)	4.21	0.86	11	4.11	1.01	13
10. Skills in holding on-to-one conferences (n=55)	3.93	1.09	15	3.95	1.11	15
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns (n=53)	4.28	0.91	7	4.17	1.01	12
12. Ability to analyze complex problems (n=55)	4.17	1.01	12	4.18	0.84	11
13. Ability to do long-range planning (n=55)	4.24	0.92	9	4.22	0.88	9.5
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems (n=54)	4.24	0.82	9	4.33	0.89	6.5
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues (n=55)	4.49	0.79	3	4.40	0.99	4

Response scale: Importance: 5= great, 4 =high, 3 = moderate, 2 = some 1 =no importance
Need for further preparation; 5= great, 4 =high, 3 = moderate, 2 = some 1 =none

Table 4.35

Teachers' Responses Relating to Existing and Preferred Extent of Involvement of Various Types of Personnel in Internal Instructional Supervision
(N=136)

		5 always involved		4 frequently involved		3 occasionally involved		2 seldom involved		1 never involved		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
Headteacher	E	71	52.2	36	26.5	17	12.5	3	2.2	4	2.9	5	3.7	4.27	0.98
	P	91	66.9	27	19.9	6	4.4	1	0.7	-	-	11	8.1	4.66	0.61
Deputy headteacher	E	53	39.0	34	25.0	32	23.5	9	6.6	5	3.7	3	2.2	3.91	1.12
	P	75	55.1	32	23.5	15	11.0	3	2.2	1	0.7	10	7.4	4.40	0.85
Department heads	E	41	30.1	34	25.0	36	26.5	17	12.5	5	3.7	3	2.2	3.67	1.15
	P	81	59.6	30	22.1	9	6.6	5	3.7	-	-	11	8.1	4.50	0.80
Subject heads	E	31	22.8	30	22.1	29	21.3	26	19.1	12	8.8	8	5.9	3.33	1.30
	P	80	58.8	25	18.4	14	10.3	4	2.9	-	-	13	9.6	4.47	0.82
Colleagues	E	20	14.7	19	14.0	36	26.5	28	20.6	23	16.9	10	7.4	2.88	1.32
	P	47	34.6	38	27.9	23	16.9	8	5.9	4	2.9	16	11.8	3.97	1.08
Teachers themselves (self-supervision)	E	45	33.1	27	19.9	34	25.0	15	11.0	6	4.4	9	6.6	3.71	1.20
	P	78	57.4	26	19.1	12	8.8	3	2.2	2	1.5	15	11.0	4.45	0.89

E = Existing extent, P = Preferred extent

Table 4.36

Comparison between the Existing and Preferred Extent of Involvement of Various Types of Personnel in Internal Instructional Supervision as Perceived by Teachers

	Existing Extent			Preferred Extent				
Types of personnel	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
1. Headteacher (n=125)	4.26	0.99	1	4.66	0.61	1	-5.499	.000 **
2. Deputy headteacher (n=126)	3.90	1.10	2	4.40	0.85	5	-6.456	.000 **
3. Department heads (n=125)	3.65	1.14	4	4.50	0.80	2	-9.477	.000 **
4. Subject heads (n=120)	3.29	1.29	5	4.47	0.83	3.5	-11.055	.000 **
5. Colleagues (n=118)	2.86	1.27	6	3.97	1.08	6	-10.666	.000 **
6 Teachers themselves (self-supervision) (n=120)	3.66	1.21	3	4.47	0.87	3.5	-7.820	.000 **

Response scale: 5=always involved, 1=never involved
* significant at the .05 level, ** significant at the .001 level

Table 4.37

Headteachers' Responses Relating to Existing and Preferred Extent of Involvement of Various Types of Personnel in Internal Instructional Supervision

(N=56)

		5 always involved		4 frequently involved		3 occasionally involved		2 seldom involved		1 never involved		N/A or no answer			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.
Headteacher	**E**	40	71.4	9	16.1	5	8.9	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.65	0.65
	P	44	78.6	7	12.5	2	3.8	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.79	0.49
Deputy headteacher	**E**	27	48.2	19	33.9	10	17.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.30	0.76
	P	42	75.0	12	21.4	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.75	0.48
Department heads	**E**	17	30.4	17	30.4	16	28.6	3	5.4	2	3.6	1	1.8	3.80	1.06
	P	38	67.9	13	23.2	4	7.1	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.62	0.62
Subject heads	**E**	12	21.4	17	30.4	19	33.9	6	10.7	2	3.6	-	-	3.55	1.06
	P	32	57.1	15	26.8	8	14.3	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.44	0.74
Colleagues	**E**	7	12.7	6	10.7	26	46.4	14	25.0	2	3.6	1	1.8	3.04	1.02
	P	21	37.5	16	28.6	11	19.6	6	10.7	-	-	2	3.6	3.96	1.03
Teachers themselves (self-supervision)	**E**	14	25.0	16	28.6	14	25.0	7	12.5	1	1.8	4	7.1	3.67	1.08
	P	29	51.8	11	19.6	9	16.1	2	3.6	-	-	5	8.9	4.31	0.91

E = Existing extent, P = Preferred extent

Table 4.38

Comparison between the Existing and Preferred Extent of Involvement of Various Types of Personnel in Internal Instructional Supervision as Perceived by Headteachers

	Existing Extent			Preferred Extent				
Types of personnel	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank	t-value	Prob.
1. Headteacher (n=53)	4.64	0.65	1	4.79	0.49	1	-2.216	.031 *
2. Deputy headteacher (n=55)	4.29	0.76	2	4.75	0.48	2	-4.271	.000 **
3. Department heads (n=54)	3.78	1.06	3	4.61	0.63	3	-5.780	.000 **
4. Subject heads (n=55)	3.53	1.05	5	4.44	0.74	4	-5.984	.000 **
5. Colleagues (n=54)	3.00	0.99	6	3.96	1.03	6	-6.546	.000 **
6 Teachers themselves (self-supervision) (n=51)	3.65	1.07	4	4.31	0.91	5	-4.299	.000 **

Response scale: 5=always involved, 1=never involved
* significant at the .05 level, ** significant at the .001 level

Table 4.39

Frequency Distributions of Teachers, Headteachers/Deputy Headteachers, and Education Officers Relative to Mention of Types of Personnel Involved in Internal Instructional Supervision

Types of Personnel	Teachers f	Headteachers/ Deputy Headteachers f	Education Officers f	Total
1 Headteachers	5	5	8	18
2 D/Headteachers	4	2	5	11
3 Heads of Departments	3	2	1	6
4 Subject Heads	1	2	1	4
5 Class teachers		2		2
6 Peer Teachers		1		1

Table 4.40

Teachers' Degree of Satisfaction with Aspects of Internal Instructional Supervision Practices
(N=136)

	5 highly satisfied		4 somewhat satisfied		3 undecided		2 somewhat dissatisfied		1 highly dissatisfied		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
(a) The overall quality of internal instructional supervision	29	21.3	56	41.2	17	12.5	19	14.0	6	4.4	9	6.6	3.65	1.13	2
(b) The administrative support to internal instructional supervision program	37	27.2	48	35.3	15	11.0	21	15.4	4	2.9	11	8.1	3.74	1.15	1
(c) The general organization of internal instructional supervision program	25	18.4	46	33.8	21	15.4	22	16.2	8	5.9	14	10.3	3.48	1.19	3
(d) The extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work	17	12.5	37	27.2	21	15.4	22	16.2	16	11.8	23	16.9	3.15	1.30	8
(e) The extent to which the headteacher's supervisory strategies are understood by teachers	25	18.4	43	31.6	20	14.7	26	19.1	9	6.6	13	9.6	3.40	1.23	4.5
(f) The extent to which the headteacher is objective in collecting supervisory information on teachers	26	19.1	43	31.6	23	16.9	21	15.4	12	8.8	11	8.1	3.40	1.26	4.5

continue

Table 4.40 (continued)

	5 highly satisfied		4 somewhat satisfied		3 undecided		2 somewhat dissatisfied		1 highly dissatisfied		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
(g) The availability of support documents relevant to internal instructional supervision	20	14.7	37	27.2	21	15.4	33	24.3	6	4.4	19	14.0	3.27	1.19	6
(h) The adequacy of support documents relevant to internal instructional supervision	23	16.9	33	24.3	22	16.2	27	19.9	14	10.3	17	12.5	3.20	1.31	7
(i) The existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor	12	8.8	32	23.5	26	19.1	29	21.3	19	14.0	18	13.2	2.91	1.25	10
(j) The adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor	23	16.9	33	24.3	22	16.2	27	19.9	14	10.3	17	12.5	2.99	1.24	9

Table 4.41

Headteachers' Degree of Satisfaction with Aspects of Internal Instructional Supervision Practices
(N=56)

	5 highly satisfied		4 somewhat satisfied		3 undecided		2 somewhat dissatisfied		1 highly dissatisfied		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
(a) The overall quality of internal instructional supervision	11	19.6	38	67.9	2	3.6	4	7.1	-	-	1	1.8	4.02	0.73	3
(b) The administrative support to internal instructional supervision program	18	32.1	30	53.6	3	5.4	2	3.6	1	1.8	2	3.6	4.15	0.83	1
(c) The general organization of internal instructional supervision program	13	23.2	33	58.9	5	8.9	4	7.1	-	-	1	1.8	4.00	0.79	4
(d) The extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work	7	12.5	15	26.8	13	23.2	12	21.4	5	8.9	4	7.1	3.13	1.21	9
(e) The extent to which the headteacher's supervisory strategies are understood by teachers	6	10.7	29	51.8	9	16.1	9	16.1	1	1.8	2	3.6	3.56	0.96	5
(f) The extent to which the headteacher is objective in collecting supervisory information on teachers	17	30.4	29	51.8	6	10.7	3	5.4	-	-	1	1.8	4.09	0.80	2

continue

Table 4.41 (continued)

	5 highly satisfied		4 somewhat satisfied		3 undecided		2 somewhat dissatisfied		1 highly dissatisfied		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
(g) The availability of support documents relevant to internal instructional supervision	11	19.6	18	32.1	8	14.3	9	16.1	9	16.1	1	1.8	3.24	1.39	6
(h) The adequacy of support documents relevant to internal instructional supervision	7	12.5	23	41.1	8	14.3	9	16.1	8	14.3	1	1.8	3.22	1.29	7
(i) The existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor	4	7.1	22	39.3	9	16.1	12	21.4	6	10.7	3	5.4	3.11	1.19	10
(j) The adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the internal instructional supervisor	3	5.4	26	46.4	6	10.7	12	21.4	6	10.7	3	5.4	3.15	1.18	8

Table 5.1

Participation in Development Activities for Teachers by Teachers (n=136) and Headteachers (n=56)

		yes		no		
		f	%	f	%	Chi-Square
Workshops organized by:						
KIE	**T**	47	34.6	89	65.4	
	H	26	46.4	30	53.6	2.372
	Total	73	38.0	119	62.9	
KESI	**T**	8	5.9	128	94.1	
	H	42	75.0	14	25.0	98.389**
	Total	50	26.0	142	74.0	
KNEC	**T**	72	52.9	64	47.1	
	H	26	46.4	30	53.6	0.673
	Total	98	51.0	94	49.0	
KNUT	**T**	37	27.2	99	72.8	
	H	15	26.8	41	73.2	0.004
	Total	52	27.1	140	72.9	
Other	**T**	58	42.6	78	57.4	
	H	33	58.9	23	41.1	4.271*
	Total	91	47.4	101	52.6	
In-service education courses	**T** (n=128)	32	25.0	96	75.0	
	H (n=55)	34	61.8	21	63.9	22.616**
	Total (n=183)	66	36.1	117	63.9	

T = Teachers, **H** = Headteachers

* significant at the .05 level

** significant at the .01 level

Table 5.2
Frequency Distributions of Professional Activities by Teachers

Professional Activities	Frequency
1. Workshops coordinated by District Education Officers (DEOs)	38
2. Workshops coordinated by Provincial Directors of Education (PDsE)	9
3. SMASSE (Strengthening Mathematics and Science Secondary Education) workshops	7
4. Workshops organized by the Inspectorate wing of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology	6
5. Workshops organized by non-governmental organization (NGOs)	2
6. Marking district and Provincial Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE)	1
7. Workshops on reproductive health organized by the Ministry of Health	1
8. Kenya Agriculture Teachers Association (KATA) workshop	1
9. Workshops organized by the British Council	1
10. Environmental workshops organized by World Life Clubs of Kenya	1
11. Workshops organized by Kenya Secondary School Headteachers' Association (KSSHA)	1
12. Written workshops organized by the Kenya Literature Bureau	1
13. Workshops organized by the National Sports Council	1
Total	69

Table 5.3

Teachers' and Headteachers' Frequency of Mention of In-Service Education Courses Undertaken in Instructional Supervision

	Yes		no		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Teachers	32	25.0	96	75	128	100.0
Headteachers	34	61.8	21	63.9	55	100.0
Total	66	36.1	117	63.9	183	100.0

Table 5.4
Teachers' Frequency of Mention of Instructional Supervision In-Service Education Courses Attended and the Benefits Achieved

Instructional Supervision In-Service Education Courses and Venues	Specific Aspects of the Benefits Achieved	Frequency
1. Science and Head of Department seminars at district education headquarters	. Skills in supervising of students . Knowledge regarding best teaching methods . Skills in evaluating students	6
2. Workshops at individual schools	. Knowledge in the development of instructional materials . Instructional methodologies . Collaborative approaches to institutional management	5
3. Seminar organized by Kenya Secondary School Headteachers' Association (KSSHA) At Kisumu Girls High School, Kisumu	. Knowledge in preparing student examinations	3
4. Seminar Kisumu Boys High School, Kisumu	. Strategies for effective teaching . Knowledge about the effective use of instructional materials . Geography instructional techniques	2
5. Kenya National Examinations Council workshops in Nairobi	. Skills in examining students' work	2
6. Workshops organized by Provincial Youth Heads' Association at Provincial Education Headquarters	. Knowledge about the role of heads of departments	2
7. Seminar at Moi Girls Secondary School, Eldoret, Uasin Gishu	. Skills in reading and recording data in Chemistry practical work	2
8. Seminar at Tambach High School, Baringo	. Skills in handling maths and science in secondary schools	1

Continue

Table 5.4 (Continued)

Type of Instructional Supervision In-Service Education and Venues	Specific Aspects of the Benefits Achieved	Frequency
9. Workshop at St. Patrics, Iten	. Knowledge regarding the use of local materials in instruction	1
10. Seminar at Bungoma High School, Bungoma	. Skills in practical work in sciences	1
11. Workshop at Tudor High School, Mombasa	. Instructional duties of head of department	1
12. Seminar for French teachers at Aga Khan High School, Mombasa	. Effective teaching strategies	1
13. Seminar at Kenyatta University, Nairobi	. Instructional supervisory strategies	1
14. Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) course at Kisii Teachers Training College, Kisii	. Managerial skills	1
15. Marking course at Moi Nairobi Girls High School, Nairobi	. Skill in marking examinations . Teaching effectiveness	1
16. Seminar organized by Kisumu Association of Teachers at British Council Library, Kisumu	. Not mentioned	1
17. Kenya Institute of Education workshop at Kakamega	. Not mentioned	1
	Total	32

Table 5.5
Development Activities for Teachers: Level of Agreement
(N=136)

In general, my head-teacher's role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. encouraging inter-school teacher visitations	58	42.6	40	29.4	14	10.3	8	5.9	9	6.6	7	5.1	4.01	1.20	5
2. providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and workshops	55	40.4	52	38.2	17	12.5	4	2.9	6	4.4	2	1.5	4.09	1.03	2
3. planning staff development, taking into account needs and interests of individual teachers	37	27.2	46	33.8	23	16.9	12	8.8	8	5.9	10	7.4	3.73	1.17	12
4. acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletter	26	19.1	33	24.3	20	14.7	16	11.8	9	6.6	32	23.5	3.49	1.26	14
5. encouraging teachers to have plans for continuing staff development	46	33.8	51	37.5	19	14.0	8	5.9	7	5.1	5	3.7	3.92	1.11	9
6. planning for continuing staff development activities	37	27.2	43	31.6	28	20.6	8	5.9	10	7.4	10	7.4	3.71	1.19	13

continue

Table 5.5 (continued)

In general, my head-teacher's role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
7. providing information about staff development programs for teachers to take	48	35.3	46	33.8	21	15.4	12	8.8	4	2.9	5	3.7	3.93	1.08	8
8. providing opportunities for teachers to assume leadership	55	40.0	39	28.7	26	19.1	7	5.1	6	4.4	3	2.2	3.98	1.11	6.5
9. recommending key teachers for promotion	60	44.1	36	26.5	24	17.6	11	8.1	2	1.5	3	2.2	4.06	1.06	3
10. encouraging teachers to engage in self-assessment	44	32.4	55	40.4	20	14.7	7	5.1	4	2.9	6	4.4	3.98	1.00	6.5
11. offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies	29	21.3	26	19.1	27	19.9	17	12.5	19	14.0	18	13.2	3.25	1.40	15
12. advising teachers on how to go about interviews for promotion organized by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	58	42.6	31	22.8	24	17.6	8	5.9	5	3.7	10	7.4	4.02	1.13	4
13. providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties	53	39.0	51	37.5	22	16.2	4	2.9	3	2.2	3	2.2	4.11	0.94	1

Table 5.5 (continued)

In general, my head-teacher's role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
14. assessing in-service needs for teachers	36	26.5	38	27.9	26	19.1	14	10.3	5	3.7	17	12.5	3.74	1.14	11
15. assessing teachers in setting realistic and appropriate goals for professional growth	46	33.8	39	28.7	27	19.9	7	5.1	8	5.9	9	6.6	3.85	1.16	10

Table 5.6
Development Activities for Teachers: Importance
(N=136)

In general, my head-teacher's role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. encouraging inter-school teacher visitations	80	58.8	34	25.0	12	8.8	3	2.2	3	2.2	4	2.9	4.40	0.92	13
2. providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and workshops	92	67.6	31	22.8	5	3.7	1	0.7	1	0.7	6	4.4	4.63	0.67	4
3. planning staff development, taking into account needs and interests of individual teachers	84	61.8	30	22.1	13	9.6	2	1.5	1	0.7	6	4.4	4.49	0.80	7.5
4. acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletter	57	41.9	39	28.7	16	11.8	10	7.4	5	3.7	9	6.6	4.05	1.12	14
5. encouraging teachers to have plans for continuing staff development	78	57.4	46	33.8	3	2.2	5	3.7	-	-	4	2.9	4.49	0.73	7.5
6. planning for continuing staff development activities	75	55.1	42	30.9	3	2.2	7	5.1	-	-	9	6.6	4.46	0.79	9.5

continue

Table 5.6(continued)

In general, my head-teacher's role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
7. providing information about staff development programs for teachers to take	86	63.2	30	22.1	3	2.2	8	5.9	1	0.7	8	5.9	4.50	0.88	6
8. providing opportunities for teachers to assume leadership	99	72.8	25	18.4	5	3.7	1	0.7	1	0.7	5	3.7	4.68	0.66	2
9. recommending key teachers for promotion	107	78.7	16	11.8	4	2.9	3	2.2	-	-	6	4.4	4.75	0.63	1
10. encouraging teachers to engage in self-assessment	76	55.9	38	27.9	13	9.6	3	2.2	1	0.7	5	3.7	4.41	0.82	11.5
11. offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies	62	45.6	32	23.5	14	10.3	7	5.1	15	11.0	6	4.4	3.92	1.36	15
12. advising teachers on how to go about interviews for promotion organized by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	98	72.1	26	19.1	1	0.7	4	2.9	1	0.7	6	4.4	4.66	0.72	3
13. providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties	92	67.6	31	22.8	7	5.1	2	1.5	-	-	4	2.9	4.61	0.66	5

Table 5.6(continued)

In general, my head-teacher's role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
14. assessing in-service needs for teachers	74	54.4	43	31.6	10	7.4	5	3.7	-	-	4	2.9	4.41	0.79	11.5
15. assessing teachers in setting realistic and appropriate goals for professional growth	78	57.4	40	29.4	7	5.1	4	2.9	1	0.7	6	4.4	4.46	0.80	9.5

Table 5.7
Frequency Distributions of Other Professional Activities by Headteachers

Professional Activities	Frequency
1. Workshops organized by the Kenya Secondary School Headteachers' Association (KSSHA)	15
2. Workshops coordinated by the Provincial Directors of Education (PDsE)	6
3. Workshops coordinated by the District Education Officers (DEOs)	5
4. Workshops organized by the Kenya Institute of Administration (KIA)	1
5. Workshops organized by Scripture Union of Africa on Guidance and Counseling	1
6. Environmental Education workshops	1
7. Church-organized workshops	1
8. British Council seminars	1
9. Workshops organized by non-governmental organizations (NGOs)	1
10. Workshops organized by the Commission for Higher Education	1
11. Workshops organized by the Inspectorate wing of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology	1
Total	28

Table 5.8
Headteachers' Frequency of Mention of Instructional Supervision In-Service Education Courses Attended and the Benefits Achieved

Instructional Supervision In-Service Education Courses and Venues	Specific Aspects of the Benefits Achieved	f
1. Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) course at Maseno National school, Maseno	. Importance and strategies of instructional supervision and teacher motivation . Skill in leadership . Financial management and instructional records . Supervision and administrative skills . Participatory school management	9
2. Kenya Secondary School Headteachers' Association courses at District Education headquarters	. Supervisory tools	5
3. In-service course at Kisii Teacher Training College	. The role of the headteacher as manager . Use and importance of professional documents . Effective staff development programs . Managerial skills	3
4. Kenya Education Staff Institute courses at Muranga Teachers Training College (TTC)	. Supervision and indicators of positive progress	2
5. Workshops at Bondo Teachers Training College (TTC), Bondo	. The role of deputy headteacher as curriculum supervisor . Curriculum implementation . Effective supervision of instruction	1
6. Workshops at Kenya Science Teachers' College (KSTC)	. Teaching problems relating to schemes of work . Techniques of problem solving	1
7. In-service courses organized by Inspectorate wing of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology at Provincial Education headquarters	. Effective supervision of instruction	1

Continue

Table 5.8 (Continued)

Instructional Supervision In-service Education In-Service Education Courses and venues	Specific Aspects of the Benefits Achieved	Frequency
8. Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) courses at Mombasa	. Effective instructional supervision	1
9. Induction courses at Garissa Teacher Training College (TTC)	. Beginning headteachership	1
10. Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) course at Moi Girls High School, Eldoret	. Managerial and administrative skills	1
11. In-service courses at Machakos Teacher Training College (TTC)	. Effective self-evaluation . Curriculum assessment and Implementation	1
12. Courses at Moray House College of Edinburgh	. Meaning of instructional supervision	1
13. In-service courses at Maseno, Maseno	. Not mentioned	1
14. Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) In-service courses	. Not mentioned	1
	Total	30

Table 5.9
Development Activities for Teachers: Level of Agreement
(N=56)

In general, my role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. encouraging inter-school teacher visitations	28	50.0	22	39.3	4	7.1	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.44	0.63	8
2. providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and workshops	33	58.9	19	33.9	1	1.8	1	1.8	-	-	2	3.6	4.56	0.63	3.5
3. planning staff development, taking into account needs and interests of individual teachers	25	44.6	24	42.9	3	5.4	1	1.8	1	1.8	2	3.6	4.31	0.82	12
4. acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletter	19	33.9	20	35.7	8	14.3	2	3.6	-	-	7	12.5	4.14	0.84	15
5. encouraging teachers to have plans for continuing staff development	25	44.6	26	46.4	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.41	0.60	10
6. planning for continuing staff development activities	20	35.7	26	46.4	9	16.1	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.20	0.70	14

continue

Table 5.9 (continued)

In general, my role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
7. providing information about staff development programs for teachers to take	31	55.4	22	39.3	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.53	0.57	5
8. providing opportunities for teachers to assume leadership	33	58.9	20	35.7	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.56	0.57	3.5
9. recommending key teachers for promotion	38	67.9	13	23.2	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.65	0.59	1
10. encouraging teachers to engage in self-assessment	29	51.8	21	37.5	4	7.1	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.46	0.64	6.5
11. offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies	22	39.3	23	41.1	7	12.5	1	1.8	-	-	3	5.4	4.25	0.76	13
12. advising teachers on how to go about interviews for promotion organized by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	30	53.6	18	32.1	4	7.1	-	-	1	1.8	3	5.4	4.43	0.80	9
13. providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties	37	66.1	14	25.0	4	7.1	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.60	0.63	2

Table 5.9 (continued)

In general, my role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 strongly agree		4 agree		3 uncertain		2 disagree		1 strongly disagree		N/A or no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
14. assessing in-service needs for teachers	23	41.1	30	53.6	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	1	1.8	4.38	0.56	11
15. assessing teachers in setting realistic and appropriate goals for professional growth	28	50.0	23	41.1	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	2	3.6	4.46	0.61	6.5

Table 5.10

Development Activities for Teachers: Importance
(N=56)

In general, my role in staff development in this school	5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		no answer				
includes these aspects:	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. encouraging inter-school teacher visitations	37	66.1	10	17.9	5	8.9	-	-	-	-	4	7.1	4.62	0.66	10.5
2. providing access to school funds for professional travel to conferences and workshops	42	75.0	8	14.3	2	3.6	-	-	1	1.8	3	5.4	4.70	0.72	3
3. planning staff development, taking into account needs and interests of individual teachers	35	62.5	16	28.6	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	4	7.1	4.65	0.52	8
4. acknowledging teacher participation in staff development in school bulletin or newsletter	27	48.2	18	32.1	5	8.9	1	1.8	-	-	5	8.9	4.37	0.82	14
5. encouraging teachers to have plans for continuing staff development	33	58.9	17	30.4	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	4	7.1	4.60	0.57	12
6. planning for continuing staff development activities	25	44.6	22	39.3	6	10.7	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.36	0.68	15

continue

Table 5.10 (continued)

In general, my role in staff development in this school includes these aspects:	5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		no answer				
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
7. providing information about staff development programs for teachers to take	36	64.3	16	28.6	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.66	0.52	6
8. providing opportunities for teachers to assume leadership	37	66.1	13	23.2	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	4	7.1	4.67	0.55	4
9. recommending key teachers for promotion	43	76.8	9	16.1	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.79	0.45	1
10. encouraging teachers to engage in self-assessment	35	62.5	15	26.8	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	4	7.1	4.63	0.56	9
11. offering to teach certain classes for teachers in order to demonstrate specific instructional strategies	27	48.2	20	35.7	6	10.7	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.40	0.69	13
12. advising teachers on how to go about interviews for promotion organized by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	38	67.9	12	21.4	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.66	0.59	6
13. providing continuous orientation to new teachers on how to perform their duties	42	75.0	10	17.9	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.77	0.47	2

Table 5.10 (continued)

In general, my role in staff development in this school	5 great		4 high		3 moderate		2 some		1 no importance		no answer				
includes these aspects:	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	S.D.	Rank
14. assessing in-service needs for teachers	36	64.3	16	28.6	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.66	0.52	6
15. assessing teachers in setting realistic and appropriate goals for professional growth	36	64.3	14	25.0	3	5.4	-	-	-	-	3	5.4	4.62	0.60	10.5

Table 6.1

Problems in the Practices and Procedures of Internal Instructional Supervision and Suggested Changes for Improvement

Problems	Suggested changes for improvement
1. Lack of consistency and professionalism.	1. Ensuring consistency and a great deal of professionalism in the practices of supervision; for example, by being objective and teacher friendly and by discouraging with hunting, discrimination, and fault-finding practices.
2. Instructional supervisors' lack of supervisory skills and competencies.	2. Ensuring that instructional supervisors acquire the necessary supervisory skills and competencies through participation in in-service training programs.
3. Teachers' persistent negativity toward instructional practices of supervision.	3. Changing teachers' negative attitudes towards supervision; for example, by facilitating open discussions regarding supervision and educating teachers about supervision practices.
4. Lack of feedback and follow-up support on supervisory matters.	4. Providing feedback and follow-up support to teachers on matters regarding instructional supervision.

APPENDIX F

RESEARCH PERMIT

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Telegrams: "EDUCATION", Nairobi
Telephone: Nairobi 334411
When replying please quote

Ref. No. MOES&T13/001/30C16/2
and date

JOGOO HOUSE
HARAMBEE AVENUE
P.O. Box 30040
NAIROBI
27/01/2000 ..., 19....

ZACHARIAH WANZARE
P.O. BOX 2997
KISUMU.

Dear Sir,

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORISATION

Following your application for authority to conduct research on' Internal Instructional Supervsion in Public Secondary Schools in Kenya, I am pleased to let you know that your application has been considered and approved.

You are duly authorised to conduct research in all Provinces in Kenya for a Period of One year ending 31st Dec. the year 2000.

You are advised to pay courtesy calls to the Provincal Commussioners and Provincial Directors of Education in the respective Provinces of your research before commencing your research project.

This office expects to receive two bound copies of your final research report upon completion of your research project.

Yours faithfully

A.G. Kaaria
For Permanent Secretary/Education Science
and Technology.

CC.
All Provincial Commussioners
All Provincial Directors of Education.

APPENDIX G

CORRESPONDENCE

Headteacher's Name
School
Address

Maseno University College,
Department of Educational Management,
Private Bag,
Maseno.
Date

Dear

Ref: **Study on Internal Instructional Supervision**

One of the secondary education transformations which has recently received a great deal of support in Kenya is the use of instructional supervision as a vehicle for the improvement of instruction in schools. I am currently involved in a study that is examining the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools from the perceptions of headteachers, as internal instructional supervisors, and teachers. The information will be used in my Ph.D. thesis at the University of Alberta, Canada. Toward this end, I have developed an instrument that examines various aspects of school-based supervision.

You have been selected through random sampling to participate in this study. A copy of the instrument that you are requested to complete is enclosed. A self-addressed, stamped envelope to post your completed questionnaire is also enclosed. The code appearing on the instrument will be used only for the purposes of follow-up procedures. Responses will be kept confidential and neither you nor your school will be identified in the study. By participating in this study, you will receive, at a later date, a summary of the results of the study. Findings from this study will be used to recommend policy for internal instructional supervision for Kenyan public schools.

Your participation in this study, as a headteacher and as an internal instructional supervisor, is crucial. Thank you in advance for your co-operation. Please complete the questionnaire and mail it to me by September 30, 1999. If you have any further questions, please feel free to phone me at (035)51622.
Yours sincerely,

Zachariah Wanzare
Lecturer

Teacher's Name
School
Address

Maseno University College,
Department of Educational Management,
Private Bag,
Maseno.
Date

Dear

Ref: Study on Internal Instructional Supervision

One of the secondary education transformations which has recently received a great deal of support in Kenya is the use of instructional supervision as a vehicle for the improvement of instruction in schools. I am currently involved in a study that is examining the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools from the perceptions of headteachers, as internal instructional supervisors, and teachers. This information will be used in my Ph.D. thesis at the University of Alberta, Canada. Toward this end, I have developed an instrument that examines various aspects of school-based supervision.

You have been selected through random sampling to participate in this study. A copy of the instrument that you are requested to complete is enclosed. A self-addressed, stamped envelope to post your completed questionnaire is also enclosed. The code appearing on the instrument will be used only for the purposes of follow-up procedures. Responses will be kept confidential and neither you nor your school will be identified in the study. By participating in this study, your school will receive, at a later date, a summary of the results of the study. Findings from this study will be used to recommend policy for internal instructional supervision for Kenyan public schools.

Your participation in this study, as a teacher and as a supervisee, is crucial. Thank you in advance for your co-operation. Please complete the instrument and mail it to me by September 30, 1999. If you have any further questions, please feel free to phone me at (035)51622.
Yours sincerely,

Zachariah Wanzare
Lecturer

The District Education Officer
District
Address

Maseno University College,
Department of Educational Management,
Private Bag,
Maseno.
Date

Dear Sir, Ref: **Study on Internal Instructional Supervision**

One of the secondary education transformations which has recently received a great deal of support in Kenya is the use of instructional supervision as a vehicle for the improvement of instruction in schools. I am currently involved in a study that is examining the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools. This is in partial fulfillment of the requirement of my Ph.D. program at the University of Alberta, Canada. Toward this end, I am requesting you to allow me to interview you regarding the current practices of instructional supervision in the schools.

You have been selected through purposive sampling to participate in this study because of your role in the promotion of education in the province and familiarity with the government policy on school-based supervision. It would be helpful if you could allow me to audio tape the interview to facilitate our discussion. Your responses will be kept confidential and neither you nor your province will be identified in the study. Information from the interview will be used only for the purposes of this study.

Thank you for taking the time to read this letter and to consider my request. Please let me know when I can interview you at your office, preferably within the month of September, 1999. The interview will take about one and a half hours. By participating in this study, you will receive, at a later date, a summary of the results of the study. Findings from this study will be used to recommend policy for internal instructional supervision for Kenyan public schools. I also believe that this study will provide the education profession with productive information. If you have any further questions, please feel free to phone me at (035)51622.
Yours sincerely,

Zachariah Wanzare
Lecturer

The Provincial Director of Education
Province
Address

Maseno University College,
Department of Educational Management,
Private Bag,
Maseno.
Date

Dear Sir, Ref: **Study on Internal Instructional Supervision**

One of the secondary education transformations which has recently received a great deal of support in Kenya is the use of instructional supervision as a vehicle for the improvement of instruction in schools. I am currently involved in a study that is examining the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools. This is in partial fulfillment of the requirement of my Ph.D. program at the University of Alberta, Canada. Toward this end, I am requesting you to allow me to interview you regarding the current practices of instructional supervision in the schools.

You have been selected through purposive sampling to participate in this study because of your role in the promotion of education in the province and familiarity with the government policy on school-based supervision. It would be helpful if you could allow me to audio tape the interview to facilitate our discussion. Your responses will be kept confidential and neither you nor your province will be identified in the study. Information from the interview will be used only for the purposes of this study.

Thank you for taking the time to read this letter and to consider my request. Please let me know when I can interview you at your office, preferably within the month of September, 1999. The interview will take about one and a half hours. By participating in this study, you will receive, at a later date, a summary of the results of the study. Findings from this study will be used to recommend policy for internal instructional supervision for Kenyan public schools. I also believe that this study will provide the education profession with productive information. If you have any further questions, please feel free to phone me at (035)51622.
Yours sincerely,

Zachariah Wanzare
Lecturer

The Chief Inspector of Schools
Address

Maseno University College,
Department of Educational Management,
Private Bag,
Maseno.
Date

Dear Sir, Ref: **Study on Internal Instructional Supervision**

One of the secondary education transformations which has recently received a great deal of support in Kenya is the use of instructional supervision as a vehicle for the improvement of instruction in schools. I am currently involved in a study that is examining the current state of internal instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Kenyan public secondary schools. This is in partial fulfillment of the requirement of my Ph.D. program at the University of Alberta, Canada. Toward this end, I am requesting you to allow me to interview you regarding the current practices of instructional supervision in the schools.

You have been selected to participate in this study because of your role in the promotion of education in the country and familiarity with the government policy on school-based supervision. It would be helpful if you could allow me to audio tape the interview to facilitate our discussion. Your responses will be kept confidential and neither you nor your province will be identified in the study. Information from the interview will be used only for the purposes of this study.

Thank you for taking the time to read this letter and to consider my request. Please let me know when I can interview you at your office, preferably within the month of September, 1999. The interview will take about two hours. By participating in this study, you will receive, at a later date, a summary of the results of the study. Findings from this study will be used to recommend policy for internal instructional supervision for Kenyan public schools. I also believe that this study will provide the education profession with productive information. If you have any further questions, please feel free to phone me at (035)51622.

Yours sincerely,

Zachariah Wanzare
Lecturer

APPENDIX H

DOCUMENTS AND GUIDELINES

Documents and Guidelines

1. The Teachers Service Commission (TSC) Code of Regulations

The TSC Code of Regulations for teachers (Republic of Kenya, 1986) is a document compiled by the teachers Service Commission with the approval of the Ministry of Education, Science, and technology. It is published by Government Printer, Nairobi. This document is specifically concerned with the following major aspects of teacher education in Kenya: (a) registration of teachers; (b) appointments, assignments, and conduct of teachers; (c) remuneration of teachers; (d) promotion of teachers; (e) housing; (f) leave; (g) medical benefits; (h) legal proceedings by and against teachers arising out of the discharge of their duties; (h) discipline; and (i) pensions, gratuities, and other benefits.

Source: Republic of Kenya (1986). *Teachers Service Commission code of regulations for teachers (revised 1986).* Nairobi, Kenya: Government Printer.

2. A Manual for the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kenya ("Heads' Manual")

A manual for the heads of secondary schools in Kenya, commonly referred to as the "Heads' Manual" (Ministry of Education, 1987), is a government document which has been prepared by the Ministry of Education Inspectorate and printed and published by Government Printer, Nairobi, to provide, in a compact and convenient form, various aspects of school administration. It is intended to assist headteachers of secondary schools, especially beginning headteachers, to organize and to manage the schools. The manual, while does not describe in detail how to deal with every issue in a school, gives, in a concise and clear form, an overview of school administration in general, and curriculum administration particular.

The major areas covered in the manual are presented in the following 14 chapters:

1. Staff duties;
2. School administration records;
3. The filing system;
4. Finance;
5. Discipline;
6. Registration of schools, managers, Boards of Governors, and school committees;
7. Facilities and materials for tuition;
8. Enrolment;
9. Curriculum;

10. Syllabuses, schemes of work, lesson preparation, records of work, and assessment;
11. examinations;
12. School functions;
13. The school library; and
14. Guidance and counseling.

Staff Duties

The "Heads' Manual" includes duties of the following members of the teaching staff in the school: (a) headteacher; (b) deputy headteacher; (c) head of depart; (d) subject teacher; (e) class teacher; (f) housemaster; and (g) teacher counselor.

Duties of the headteacher. Among the major duties of the headteacher cited in the "Heads' Manual" in to check the teaching standards by carrying out the following activities: (a) examining teachers' artifacts of teaching (e.g., lesson notes; records of work done; pupils' exercise books) and (b) actual visit to the classrooms to see the work of individual teachers.

Source: Ministry of Education. (1987).

3. Policy Memos from the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology Headquarters

According to the provisions of the Kenyan Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 1980), the Ministry of education is charged with the responsibility of promoting education in Kenya. Toward this end, the Ministry, from time to time, formulates development plans for education, initiates educational reforms and new policies and programs. To facilitate curriculum and policy implementation in the schools, the ministry of education frequently sends up – to-date information to schools through memos and other relevant policy documents which may address areas, such as: (a) headship; (b) curriculum and instruction; (c) school safety; (d) legal aspects of education; (e) general school management; (f) cost-sharing in education; and (g) role of Boards of Governors (BOGs) and Parent Teachers Associations (PTAs). Such documents are usually forwarded to the headteachers who, in turn, are expected to enlighten their school personnel about any new developments and directives. The documents may assist headteachers and teachers in their respective instructional supervisory roles.

Source: Republic of Kenya. (1980).

4. Policy memos from the Provincial Directors of Education (PDsE)

The PDsE, formally known as Provincial Education Officers (PEOs), are the most senior education officers outside the Ministry of education Headquarters charged with the responsibility of overseeing all matters relating to education in the provinces in Kenya. To facilitate this role, the PDsE frequently send policy memos to schools on matters regarding the following major educational concerns in the provinces: (a) curriculum coordination and implementation; (b) educational standards; (c) guidance and counseling; (d) staff discipline; (e) inter-district staff transfers of headteachers, teachers, and students; (f) promotion of secondary teachers; (g) coordination, organization, and administration of public examinations; (h) selection of form 1 students for secondary education; and (i) auditing of books of accounts for all public schools.

Information obtained from some of the memos from the PDsE may be relevant to instructional supervisory roles of headteachers and teachers.

Source: Ministry of Education. (1994).

5. Policy memos from the District Education Officers (DEOs)

The DEOs are the senior education officers and overall in-charge of educational matters and programs in the various districts in Kenya. They are expected to give professional advice, guidance, and interpretation of policy matters in education. To facilitate their role in education, they frequently send policy memos and other documents relevant to education to schools through their respective headteachers. The memos may address the following major educational concerns within the districts: (a) projects and programs, including maintenance of standards; (b) guidance and counseling; (c) interpretation of policy matters in education; (d) financial matters; (e) staff appraisal; (f) promotion of teachers on merit; (g) curriculum activities; (h) inspection and supervision of schools; (i) public examinations; (j) staff development; (k) staff discipline; (l) auditing of public schools; and (m) staff discipline.

Source: Ministry of Education. (1994).

6. The Kenya national Education Staff Institute (KESI) documents

The Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) was inaugurated in 1981, and given a legal status in 1988 as an autonomous body corporate charged with the responsibility of providing induction courses in management skills to education administrators, especially headteachers, principals, school inspectors, and field service officers (Ministry of Education, 1993, 1994). The KESI may provide headteachers with various documents that may assist them to manage their schools more effectively. Such documents may be concerned with the following major areas in school administration: (a) general educational management; (b) human and public relations; (c) communication; (d) legal aspects of education; (e) leadership in education; (f) decision making and problem solving; (g) curriculum and instruction; (h) national examinations; (i) financial management; (j) delegation of duties; (k) guidance and counseling; (l) staff development; (m) school discipline; (n) physical planning and development; (o) family life education; (p) public health education; (q) policy analysis; (r) statistical techniques; (s) special education; (t) the roles of Boards of Governors (BOGs), School Committees, and Parent Teachers Associations (PTAs).

Source: Ministry of Education. (1994); Ministry of Education. (1993).

7. The Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) documents

The Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) is both a trade union and a professional organization, first registered in Kenya in 1959. Since its establishment, the KNUT has been involved in the promotion of education and development in Kenya and has produced and published various documents covering a diversity of areas, such as: (a) curriculum development; (b) teaching methodology; (c) family planning and family life education; (d) women leadership in education; (e) gender disparity in education; (f) academic and professional development of secondary school mathematics teachers; and (g) education, peace, and democracy.

Such documents are usually availed to the KNUT members who include mainly primary and secondary teachers and headteachers and may assist them in their respective instruction supervisory roles.

Source: 1. Katunga (2000)

2. Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) (1990).

8. The Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) documents

The KIE is a curriculum development and research centre administered by the Ministry of Education, which develops materials for use in education. It produces and publishes a variety of documents relevant to curriculum and instruction for the various types of education, such as primary and secondary schools, pre-service and in-service teacher education, and adult and continuing education. Such documents may be distributed across educational institutions, to facilitate curriculum implementation and to enrich learning activities.

Source: 1. Ministry of education (1994);

2. Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education (1993)

9. Documents from Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs)

Teachers Advisory Centres (TACs), originally established by the Kenyan government to complement the work of primary school inspectors in the various districts in Kenya, have become an integrated part of the in-service teacher education. In recent years, their activities have been expanded to cater for secondary schools. They are primarily resource centres utilized for in-service teacher education, especially on curriculum and instructional improvement. They produce various documents, especially regarding instructional materials and teaching methodology for use by teachers and headteachers across schools in the various districts in the country. Such documents may guide these groups of professionals in their respective instructional supervisory roles.

Source: 1. Republic of Kenya (1988a, 1988b); 2. Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education (1993).

APPENDIX I

DESCRIPTORS OF THE HEADTEACHER

Descriptors of the Headteacher

The following are some of the descriptors of the headteacher based on a review of the literature on Kenya:

Descriptor	**Source**
1. Pivot of the school	Rono (2002)
2. Morale booster	Rono (2002)
3. Immediate inspector of the school	Ministry of Eduction (1988); Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1999)
4. Inspector on the spot	Isanda (1999)
5. Flag bearer of the school	Wafula (2001)
6. Role model of the entire society	Wafula (2001)
7. Financial controller of the school	Ministry of Education (1987)
8. Accounting Officer of the school	Ministry of Education (1987); Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development (1998)
9. A classroom teacher	Khaemba (1998)
10. Foremost inspector of the school	Rono (2000)

APPENDIX J

TEACHERS SERVICE COMMISSION (TSC)

ANNUAL CONFIDENTIAL REPORT

TSC/CONF/1

SCHEDULE XV

TEACHERS SERVICE COMMISSION

ANNUAL CONFIDENTIAL REPORT

(To be completed in Triplicate)

INSTITUTION ....

Part I—To be completed by teacher

1. Full name (surname first, underlined) ....
   (*a*) TSC. No. ....
   (*b*) Grade, e.g., S1, Graduate Teacher, etc. ....
   (*c*) Married or single ....
   (*d*) Religion and denomination ....
   (*e*) Date of first appointment as teacher ....
   (*f*) Present post held and date of appointment ....
   ....
   (*g*) Present basic salary: £.. per annum.

2. Special courses, etc., taken during the year ....
   ....

3. Special contribution to education development, etc., during the year
   ....

4. Subjects taught and to what level ....
   ....

5. Extra curricular activities ....
   ....

Date ...., 19...... ....

Teacher's Signature

Part II—Report by Head of Institution or by PEO/DEO/MEO

1. General conduct and personal characteristics:

....

....

....

2. Performance in teaching and in carrying out assignments:

....

....

....

3. Administrative and organizational ability:

....

....

....

4. Co-operation with others:

....

....

5. Overall assessment (outstanding, very good, good, fair, unsatisfactory):

....

Date ...., 19.... ....
Name of Headmaster/Agent

....
Signature

Address ....
....
....

Copies to:

(i) Original to Secretary, Teachers Service Commission.
(ii) Duplicate to relevant Agent.
(iii) Triplicate to be retained by Headmaster.

Source: Republic of Kenya (1986). *Teachers Service Commission code of regulations for teachers*. Nairobi, Kenya: Government Printer, pp. 55-56.